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**A REGIONAL PROGRAM  
FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES**



THE  
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COMPANY

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A REGIONAL PROGRAM  
FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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BY  
A. C. KREY

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## INTRODUCTION

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FOR a number of years now, educators have become increasingly aware of the questions which center around any discussion of the proper place of the social studies in the schools. As early as 1916, for example, a Commission of the National Education Association <sup>1</sup> agreed that the schools should provide instruction more closely related to the immediate activities of society, and, to that end, recommended a course in community civics. Though the detailed consideration of how best to provide such instruction was delayed by the World War, the need for it soon became so increasingly apparent that several national organizations of social scientists devoted some attention to the matter. Meanwhile, teachers of the secondary schools, school administrators, and scholars engaged in educational research were attacking the problem at the school level. Civic organizations of many types then began to express vigorous concern about training for citizenship; and finally, several philanthropic foundations interested in education were persuaded to lend support to research on the whole problem of providing in the schools adequate training in the social studies. Since then, the problem has assumed major importance in the reorganization of the school curriculum.

<sup>1</sup> The Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education.

The recognition of the problem, however, did not suggest its solution either automatically or immediately. To begin with, there were large and important areas in educational procedure which had never been explored, for, until the last twenty years, research in social science had not advanced very far. Furthermore, the scanty results of existing research about society were available to only a few teachers and makers of curricula. Much of the futility of the earlier efforts to define the place of the social studies in the schools was undoubtedly due to the absence of these primary researches. Though doomed to failure, these earlier efforts have, nevertheless, been of great value in suggesting more accurate research, in revealing the difficulties inherent in the problem, and in indicating possible procedures better adapted to its more satisfactory solution.

Much has been done since 1916 to overcome the difficulties mentioned above. Research, both in social science and in education, has advanced far beyond the bounds then deemed possible; and since that time, scholars familiar with the advance in social science and scholars in education have devoted joint study over a period of years to the problems of the schools. The nature and the ramifications of the particular problem of social-science instruction have been fully set forth in the report of the Commission on the Social Studies in the Schools, whose last volume has just appeared.<sup>2</sup> This group of scholars in social science and education have recommended a program closely related to the chief

<sup>2</sup> Report of Commission on the Social Studies in the Schools sponsored by the American Historical Association. 16 volumes. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1932-1937.

activities of each considerable region. The present work describes one effort to devise such a program for an agricultural region chiefly concerned with dairying and with the production of small grain and related products.



## GUIDING FACTORS IN CONSTRUCTION OF THE PROGRAM

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CERTAIN fundamental considerations have been followed in the construction of this regional program. The region itself has shared with the rest of society the social developments of recent years. It seems unnecessary, therefore, to enumerate again the social changes which have raised new educational problems. Most of those changes have been set forth in the report of President Hoover's Commission on Recent Social Trends.<sup>1</sup> They have been further summarized for the whole field of education by the Commission on Educational Policies of the National Education Association and by the Department of Superintendence in its statement on *The Unique Function of Education in a Democracy*.<sup>2</sup> Only a few of the more important of these considerations will, therefore, be discussed here.

### EFFECTS OF THE INCREASED COMPLEXITY OF SOCIETY

There may have been a time in American history when people could safely address themselves to the effec-

<sup>1</sup> *Recent Social Trends in the United States*. Report of President Hoover's Research Committee on Social Trends. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1933.

<sup>2</sup> *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy*. Report of the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and Department of Superintendence, National Education Association of the United States. Washington, D.C., 1937.

tive performance of their individual tasks, practically disregarding the larger society around them. If so, that time is past. Technological advances and world-wide organization of industry as well as other social activities have now made it impossible for individuals to conduct their affairs successfully in ignorance of the larger social forces that surround them. If they attempt to do so, they are apt to imperil not only their own welfare but also that of the country at large.

As Professor Alvin Hansen has pointed out,<sup>3</sup> neither dairy farmers, wheat farmers, nor cotton planters can any longer safely confine their concern to the weather and to the skill and energy with which they conduct their farming. The reward for their efforts, however conscientious, may be determined, not by their own labors, but by the total production of the world, by stored surplus, or by some change in fashion or demand. These factors, in turn, are affected by disturbed political conditions, by calamities of various kinds, or by new inventions or chemical discoveries. In the past when the agencies of intercommunication and transportation were less efficient, such factors operated so gradually that they seldom made themselves seriously felt in less than a generation. Now, they may all operate simultaneously and exercise their effects everywhere within a few years at the most, usually within a year or less.

If in times past the individual was able to shield himself from the worst effects of such influences through

<sup>3</sup> Alvin H. Hansen, *Economic Stabilization in an Unbalanced World*, Harcourt, Brace & Company, New York, 1932. For the bearing of this intricate relationship of social activity upon the schools see George S. Counts, *Social Foundations of Education*, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1933.

the good will of the local community, he can obtain an equal measure of protection now only from a larger society, from the national society more often than from the state. Paradoxically enough, it is the small farmer who is most immediately affected by these forces, who, in order to provide for himself and his dependents, must make the most immediate adjustment to them. What is true of the farmer is equally true of the city dweller, laborer, or employer. Here, again, it is the smaller employer, the smaller merchant, and the unskilled laborer who will be most affected by important changes anywhere in the world, who will have to make the quickest and most frequent adjustments. In other words, whether the individual is aware of the fact or not, a knowledge of the social world today has become a matter of immediate practical concern to every member of our society.

The essential difference between these demands of society today and in past times is that social changes now require almost immediate readjustment, whereas in times past their full effects were often unnoticed for a whole generation. Matters which could then be safely regarded as of purely academic interest have been so transformed by current methods of communication and transportation as to become of the utmost immediate practical importance to every individual.

#### NATURE OF SOCIAL KNOWLEDGE

This wide and active interrelationship of the whole range of social activity has become more fully understood by social scientists during the past generation. When Maitland described society as a "seamless web," his characterization of it may then have been accepted as



a rhetorical figure of speech. When Beard, a generation later, used the same words,<sup>4</sup> they were recognized as only a literal statement of fact. The activities of society do constitute "a seamless web" even if that web is "too large for any human eye" to compass. Beard might have added that the interrelationship of human affairs is three dimensional and dynamic rather than static, constituting a web more like a mass of quivering protoplasm than like an inanimate network. It is the task of the social scientists together to try to span this seamless web, to trace the relations of each of its details to the whole, and to make the fruits of that knowledge available for the benefit of society.<sup>5</sup>

This web of social relationship is as wide as the world and as deep as time. Not only are we committed to most of our social habits and practices by what our ancestors did in bygone days, even in the prehistoric past, but in our daily lives we are constantly meeting problems with solutions that were worked out long ago and have continued to serve as well as when first contrived. The limits of social knowledge, however, are fixed by the geographical extent of the world and the available record of the past. Within these limits, the

<sup>4</sup> Charles A. Beard, *A Charter for the Social Studies in the Schools*, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1932.

<sup>5</sup> The concept of the wide interrelationship of all types of social activity has developed gradually. In this country Frederick Jackson Turner, James Harvey Robinson, C. A. Beard, and C. E. Merriam were leaders in its recognition. Carlton J. H. Hayes, Dixon Ryan Fox, A. M. Schlesinger and Harry Elmer Barnes have extended the concept among social scientists. It remained for Harold O. Rugg to acquaint the more technical educational world with this advance of social science. Perhaps its widest application to curricular problems is that of L. C. Marshall and Rachel Marshall Goetz, *Curriculum Making in the Social Studies*, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1936.

whole of social science—history, politics, economics, and sociology, as well as their numerous subdivisions—is engaged in tracing not only the relationship of great events to the details of everyday life but also the relationship of those separate details to the great events, actual or potential.

No one social science can alone accomplish this gigantic task. Any wise social policy must be based on lessons drawn not only from *each* social science but from *all* the other social sciences. To rely on any one alone would be as dangerous to the public welfare as to rely on sheer ignorance, if not more so. In other words, the dynamic factors operating in the present social world are to be discovered in any part of the world and at any time in the past experience of people. Or, to state the same truth in another way, social occurrences which have a practical bearing upon current affairs are to be sought over the whole vast extent of space and time.<sup>6</sup>

#### SOCIAL SCIENCE AND THE CONDUCT OF SOCIETY

The conduct of society is a responsibility shared by governed and governing alike. As Cheyney has pointed out,<sup>7</sup> any government of whatever form rests ultimately upon the consent of the governed. Just as the individual affects industry by his purchases or failure to purchase, and the church by his acceptance or disregard of

<sup>6</sup> C. A. Beard, *The Nature of the Social Sciences*, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1934. See also Edgar Dawson, *Teaching the Social Studies*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1927, and Rolla M. Tryon, *The Social Sciences as School Subjects*, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1935.

<sup>7</sup> E. P. Cheyney, "Law in History," *American Historical Review*, Jan., 1924.

its doctrines, so also he affects government by his obedience or disobedience to its laws. For in a democracy every citizen is expected to participate in government, and the individual responsibility is therefore immediate and direct. Those who govern do so as agents of the governed, and the responsibility for the conduct of public affairs rests clearly on both.<sup>8</sup>

It has usually been assumed that knowledge is essential to the conduct of public affairs. Events of the past generation, however, indicate that such an assumption is by no means universal either among the organized societies of the world or among all the citizens of any one society. Several large societies in recent times have entrusted the conduct of their affairs to persons whose chief qualifications are avowedly a benign purpose and a determined will unsupported by any extensive knowledge of the social web. Those societies have demonstrated the tragic waste involved in having to learn through experience how human affairs are interrelated.

Our own national experience, however, has sufficient illustrations to offer. For example, many persons primarily concerned about some particular neighbor's excessive weakness for liquor voted for national prohibition. They learned afterwards that their vote disturbed the financial structure of the nation and set going organized lawlessness of a most dangerous type; that it exposed the normal agencies of government to a corrupting influence of overwhelming magnitude; and, finally, that their neighbor, unhappily, was not saved from his weakness. Similarly, the British government had re-

<sup>8</sup> C. E. Merriam, *Civic Education in the United States*, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1934.

cently to deal with a problem on which many persons were disposed to pass quick judgment. To the romantically inclined, the solution of Edward VIII's sentimental difficulty appeared very simple: Let him marry the lady of his choice. The authorities, however, canvassed the social attitude of court circles, the religious and social prejudices of the whole Empire, the possibilities of disturbance within the Empire, and the possible consequences of that internal disturbance upon foreign relations. In light of all this, they reached a decision quite different from that of the romanticists.

Nor need the illustrations of the value of knowledge in the conduct of public affairs be confined to international and national affairs. Lincoln Steffens, for example, after spending many years in an effort to improve municipal government in this country, almost reached the conclusion that, in the conduct of municipal affairs, knowledge may be even more important than character. Indeed, as he watched people trying to rid cities of flagrant vice, he came reluctantly to believe that a blameless character might be less important in a mayor than political experience. Almost invariably, he reported, a community under inexperienced officials tends to develop new vices without losing the old. In contrast, he found numerous instances in which reforms had been successfully carried through by professional politicians of notorious reputation. The success of the latter and the failure of the former might be explained, he thought, by the difference in their knowledge of the social web of the community.<sup>9</sup>

<sup>9</sup> J. L. Steffens, *The Autobiography of Lincoln Steffens*, Harcourt, Brace & Company, New York, 1931.

## ACQUISITION OF SOCIAL KNOWLEDGE NOT AUTOMATIC

These examples not only illustrate the importance of knowledge in the conduct of public affairs, but they also reveal the fact that the acquisition of social learning is not automatic. Only a small fraction of the population has a strong desire to learn more and more about human society. A much larger fraction, though equally studious, will apply their chief study to other branches of learning—to science, or technology, or art, or business. Their attitude toward knowledge of society is the same as that of the great majority whose area of study is much more limited. They, too, prefer to have their information cover as much as possible in words as simple as possible.

This preference is no doubt connected with what appears to be a universal trait of mankind—a fondness for snap judgments. For the less an individual knows about any matter, the quicker and more satisfying will be his conclusion regarding it. Perhaps this tendency is not equally apparent in all fields of learning, for no one is apt to deliver opinions on totally unfamiliar subjects. In the field of social knowledge, however, everyone, by the mere fact of living in society, knows something about it, limited as that knowledge may be. Every citizen therefore possesses that dangerous minimum of knowledge which invites him to use his judgment about nearly every question that arises. Since he must participate as a citizen and a voter in many questions which interest him little, if at all, he quite naturally wants to do so with the least effort. Therefore he wants only positive, unqualified information about society, and prefers

a convenient formula to much involved thinking about complex social problems. Above all, he is inclined, in any situation, to take into account too few relationships, often being willing to solve a national or international question on the basis of less information than he would apply to a problem involving only two individuals.

This combination of circumstances—the fact that everyone knows something about society and that all except a very small fraction of the population have their studious interests engaged in other pursuits—creates a tendency for most adults to resist, rather than invite, further social knowledge. This statement applies just as truly to those conscientious persons of great learning in other fields who feel it their duty to “keep up with affairs.” Their reading about society is usually desultory and casual, done during the recreation period of the day and preferably in popular articles. On occasion, they may recall striking bits of information from such reading, but they seldom stop to relate what they read to what they already know, nor do they have much patience with an article which seeks to follow intricate relationships outside their own specialties. In other words, specialists in other fields seldom actually study social problems, though they often think they have done so.

If accurate and detailed social knowledge is essential to the conduct of public affairs and if so few adults are interested in acquiring such knowledge, then the school becomes almost the only agency through which society can hope to meet the added demands for that widespread social knowledge which the heightened tempo of world interactions has made necessary. The task is not merely one of imparting information, but, even more

important, one of developing a willingness to continue studying and seeking information on public questions wherever it may best be found.

#### THE SCHOOL

If, as is commonly held, the school is the most effective agency through which society can impart the necessary social knowledge, the character of the school today must be considered as one of the main guiding factors in a program of social education.

The school today is no longer the same institution with which the generation now directing society—that is persons past forty years of age—was once familiar. It is changed in dominant purpose, as well as in several more obvious respects. The average expectancy of school years for each child now in school is probably more than twelve, instead of the six or eight years of schooling to which the older generation looked forward. This means that virtually all children not physically or mentally deficient will remain in school through the eighth grade, nearly all through the tenth grade, nearly eighty per cent through the twelfth grade, and more than fifty per cent two years longer.

The purpose of the school, once chiefly devoted to preparation for the learned professions and vocations, has become almost predominantly social. This is a natural result of various changes in the social structure. The newer mechanical and technological devices have so lowered the amount of labor needed to supply the demands of society that there is not now work enough for all adults. Society has chosen to use much of this added leisure time in further education of its youth. For

youths in the secondary school can scarcely compete with adults in the economic world, nor can they profitably pass their time in idleness. Therefore school attendance in many parts of the country has been made compulsory to the age of sixteen, in some places to the age of eighteen, while many social pressures are operating to extend this age limit to twenty or twenty-one years. This development has led educational leaders to emphasize education for leisure as one of the chief purposes of the schools.

The administrative policy of the schools has likewise altered in response to changes in school enrollment. With the great influx of additional pupils, especially in the upper grades of the elementary school and in all the grades of the secondary school, the continued application of the old standards for promotion threatened to crowd the lower grades unduly and to produce serious age inequalities in the upper elementary grades. To avoid this danger, school administration has moved in the direction of more or less automatic promotion, so that age levels may remain uniform in each grade, even though the intellectual attainments of the pupils may present the utmost diversity. Partly in response to this factor, but chiefly because of the increased numbers, the public school system has been broken up into four separately administered units instead of the two familiar to the older generation. Thus, there are now in many places elementary schools, junior high schools, senior high schools, and junior colleges. In any program of social education, therefore, the great increase in secondary-school attendance and the policy of automatic promotion will require very definite consideration.



The vocational significance of the secondary school—once recognized by all—has again begun to receive serious attention and wider emphasis than formerly. The policy of automatic promotion and of education for leisure has naturally tended to minimize concern about vocational training. Yet nearly every kind of employment now requires much greater knowledge and skill than was formerly the case, and both the number and variety of positions have multiplied enormously. While a smaller proportion of the population is needed to fill the available jobs, those who do fill them are engaged in much more diversified employment and are required to have much wider knowledge. Thus these developments in the economic world have been creating new demands for better vocational training at the very time when the schools have been bending their energies in quite a different direction.

According to recent educational discussion, a reorganization of the secondary schools to meet the more varied purposes which society now requires is imminent.<sup>10</sup> Just what form or forms this will take is at present largely a matter of conjecture. One possibility is disclosed by the developments in the large state universities which, of all educational institutions, have generally been most responsive to the demands of society. In these centers, recreation has become recognized as potentially vocational, and former extracurricular activities have been transformed into curricular programs leading to-

<sup>10</sup> A tentative statement of the problems appears in the published statements of the director of the American Youth Commission: H. P. Rainey, *Plans of the American Youth Commission*, Department of Secondary School Principals. B. 20. April, 1936.

ward definite vocations. At the same time, the technological development has been reflected in the multiplication of specialized curricula. Should these curricula develop the need for definite antecedent preparation, the curricula of the high schools would necessarily have to expand to meet this need. One of the questions now facing school administrators is, therefore, whether every high school should try to serve all the possible needs of such diversification or whether high schools in a given area should limit themselves to specific types of secondary education, as is already being done in some large cities. The development of the Civilian Conservation Corps by the National Government has deflected a part of the secondary-school population and suggests that portions of the secondary-school task may be assumed by some other agency than the formal educational system. This much, however, is already clear: A society in which unskilled labor is expected to operate expensive machinery in factories and in homes, and in which household labor is expected to understand antisepsis and hygiene will not be content with schools which offer only an academic curriculum at the secondary-school level. Doubtless considerations of cost as well as of need and desire will enter into the ultimate solution of the problem of reorganizing the secondary schools. The emerging vocational demands, however, will undoubtedly play a large part in that reorganization.

#### ECONOMY OF INSTRUCTION IN SOCIAL STUDIES

If the curriculum of secondary education should become more highly diversified either by an increase in offerings in all-purpose high schools or by the establish-

ment of diverse limited-purpose secondary schools, the question of economy in instruction in the social studies will become increasingly important. At present, educational leaders as well as thoughtful laymen are so thoroughly convinced of the importance of instruction in this field that they not only are willing to offer some work in it at every grade level, but in many instances have also looked with favor upon the use of other subjects in the curriculum to advance the pupil's knowledge of society. Thus, in many schools, geography has been transformed into a social study; and in some instances science has been modified not only by the selection of topics deemed most immediately useful to society, but also by extended consideration of the social significance of every topic treated. Teachers of English have also tended to assign an increased proportion of reading from the social sciences; and recently mathematics has likewise been used in connection with problems of social living, such as budgets, insurance, social security, and the like.

Unfortunately, such modification of other subjects often involves a corresponding diminution of emphasis on their own intrinsic values. Whether society can wisely afford thus to lessen the amount and quality of instruction in these other fields or to postpone the training in the fundamental skills which they represent until after the secondary-school age is a question which has already begun to raise serious doubts in many minds. Since nearly every activity of society has become intensified under the drive of technological advance, it would seem reasonable that preparation for nearly every vocation should require more, rather than less,

preliminary preparation, especially in the secondary-school years. Furthermore, if our society is to maintain its place in the general social development of the world, it is evidently of the highest social importance to have a sufficient number of its members trained in all vocations involved in that development. Such considerations would argue for the increase and improvement of technical subjects and training as against the dilution of those subjects with foreign material.

#### TECHNICAL KNOWLEDGE AND SOCIETY

A closer scrutiny of technical knowledge may, however, yield certain economies in social instruction. Every human vocation has its own techniques, its own body of technical knowledge, the mastery of which may demand continuous study throughout a lifetime. If so, society is bound to derive some benefit from the effort of its members to extend and improve any field of particularized knowledge.

The social significance of each vocation, however, represents a very different problem. To the enthusiast in each vocation, its technical knowledge is of the utmost significance. It is for him the avenue through which he comes in contact with nearly every other social, economic, or political activity of society. It may even be for him, as a certain teacher of mathematics recently described her subject, a "gateway to God." Naturally, therefore, he is inclined to assume that what is so all-important to him must be equally important to everyone else, and that society would be better directly in proportion to its knowledge of his specialized vocation. Since, however, there are many thousands of vo-

cations, each with its equally enthusiastic devotees, it is obviously impossible for every member of society to enjoy such detailed knowledge of every vocation. In fact, since most of these vocations are constantly expanding their bodies of technical knowledge, society may be forced to keep its members from trying to learn a little about many vocations at the expense of efficiency and progress in one. Society is thus faced with a problem of determining how much technical knowledge is necessary for each of its members to possess.

Technical knowledge may be regarded as of four degrees. First, a citizen may be aware that a certain body of knowledge exists. Second, he may understand its service to society. Third, he may possess some general comprehension of its operation. Fourth, he may have mastered the detailed body of technical knowledge involved. Awareness of the existence of a vocation, preferably of every vocation, is socially desirable, if not also essential. Since, however, awareness usually begets some kind of attitude toward the activity, this limited degree of knowledge is insufficient. Unless the person knows something more about the activity, his attitude may be one of indifference or even of potential hostility. It is, therefore, essential that everyone aware of an activity gain some knowledge of the service which that activity renders to society. The failure to impart this second degree of knowledge has, in times past, caused endless and unnecessary friction inimical to particular vocations and harmful to society.

It is doubtful, on the other hand, whether there is any social gain in extending beyond the second degree the individual's knowledge of vocations in which he is

not interested. Acquaintance with the major technical divisions of the dominant vocations of a given region is, however, needed by all who live there, for the whole life of that locality is affected by these activities. There is thus a real social value for that limited area in the common possession of such knowledge. It may not be of great importance to the people of Minnesota, for instance, to be acquainted with the major steps of cotton culture, but it is important for them to have some detailed knowledge of wheat, milling, and the dairy industries. This third degree of technical knowledge is essential only in the case of particular vocations dominant in the region where the individual lives. The fourth degree, the unlimited knowledge of specialized technical details, is of concern only to those who are engaged in the particular vocation. It is to the interest of society to have those individuals seeking constantly to increase and extend that knowledge, but it is definitely contrary to the interest of society to force others to seek such specialized knowledge, if by so doing they are kept from learning all that they should learn about their own interests.

#### VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

In recent years psychologists have devoted much attention to the learning ability and capacity of the individual. This work has been directed, in large part, to the selection and training of persons for various types of specialized employment, whether in industry or civil service. It has, however, also yielded important results for general education which should be considered in any program of instruction. It has become definitely

recognized that individuals differ in their preferred methods of expression and tend naturally to develop those forms in which they excel their immediate fellows. The increasing diversity of vocations requiring training has accentuated the search for a very wide range of types of expression. Among the more fundamental types now recognized in education are not merely speech, writing, and drawing, but also dramatic, mechanical, and physical types of expression. Each of these has various forms of specialization, and various combinations of different types may occur in a given individual. The discovery of each individual's best type, or combination of types, is not only of advantage to the individual but likewise to society and should, therefore, be one of the chief concerns of the educational process.

The recognition that the development of innate abilities is of value to society as well as to the individual has resulted in the establishment of courses in vocational guidance in many schools. Perhaps these courses have been of greater significance in intent than in actual achievement. For long before the individual enters school, almost as soon as he is born, he has begun the process of discovering his own talents, and he continues that process well on toward middle age, if not longer.

His interest in the choice of a vocation to which his talent may be best applied also begins quite early in life. Perhaps this interest is most acute in the early teens, corresponding roughly to the years of the junior high school. Some children will have decided firmly upon a career even earlier, while many will make that choice somewhat later, some postponing it to the end of

their college days or even longer. This double process of discovering talent and of choosing a career usually proceeds along practical, sometimes painful, lines of trial and error. A fact too often overlooked by sentimental friends and teachers is that it is just as important for a child to learn what he cannot do well as it is to discover in what he excels. Many a gnawing sense of frustration in later life might easily have been avoided by the early discovery of lack of aptitude. Both the positive and negative aspects of this problem, however, argue for the richest possible exposure of youth to vocational and avocational opportunities, not merely at one grade level, but throughout the school years. The establishment of departments of personnel research in some of the larger school systems at every grade level seems a more promising device than a single course at one grade level. The task and the opportunity of helpful guidance, always regarded as one of the functions of education, cannot, however, be discharged by such a device alone. It must continue to be an incidental function of every branch of learning offered in the schools. The social studies, which review the whole range of human activities, offer exceptional opportunity for assistance in this vital problem.

#### SOCIAL LEARNING

Closely related to the individual's search for his own proficiencies is his search for skill in dealing with society, for that, too, is an essential element in his choice of vocation as well as in his happiness. It is a fact too often overlooked that the individual does not inherit knowledge of society as he does his innate abilities and capaci-



ties for learning. All that he learns about society must be learned during his one lifetime—a fact which constitutes a definite, if as yet undefined, limit to the progress of civilization. The child enters a society composed of persons of every age and, though he moves continuously from the bottom to the top of the age groups, he remains constantly a member of that whole social pyramid. This fact, too, is sometimes overlooked, especially by those educational theorists who would limit instruction to what they regard as matters of interest to each year's level. Such a procedure would be as artificial as it is arbitrary, for youth's dealings with all age groups are as real and essential to him as to older persons.

It is, of course, true that the child learns most effectively in terms of the satisfaction, or rather quest, of his own desires. This is the most meaningful experience, and what he learns from it is of practical value or, as it is often called, functional learning. The quest of his own desires, however, usually involves the co-operation of persons of all ages—of parents and grandparents as well as of playmates, strangers, and friends. His social problem, therefore, is that of learning how to secure such co-operation most effectively. Unfortunately, as a member of society from birth, his desires may come into conflict with other persons' desires, which experience, whether pleasant or unpleasant, yet constitutes an essential part of his development. The range of his needs and opportunities continues to widen as he grows up and extends increasingly beyond the circle of the persons with whom he first comes into direct contact. Though he is from birth a part of the whole social web, yet his awareness of the fact dawns upon him very

slowly and requires conscious assistance. This knowledge can be made functional only as it is related to his own meaningful experiences.

The operation of the world-wide social web is possible only because most of the steps in the process have become habitual. If each generation had to start anew, there could be no world society. Doubtless the social structure holds together as well as it does largely because each new generation tacitly comes to accept the arrangements which are already in existence, unconsciously imitating the ways of its elders until it too becomes habituated to them. Yet each generation, as it rises to increased responsibility for the conduct of society, tends to question the ways of its forebears. Circumstances, too, continually arise to force modifications of habitual ways—a process which requires conscious attention.

The proportion of the world's activities which requires such conscious attention in any given generation is, however, relatively small; and shifts from one type of activity to another from generation to generation are usually so slight that a complete overhauling of the social web would normally require many centuries. Unfortunately, it has never been possible to predict with any great certainty which of the areas of the social web will require the conscious attention of any given generation. Yet all such modifications, to be effective, require as nearly universal acquiescence as possible. This requires a degree of understanding which dogmatic instruction alone does not impart. The knowledge of why a certain social practice is followed and what its social function is—knowledge essential to any advanced degree of

social understanding—can best be imparted in an experiential way. This experiential material is most vivid and of greatest educational value if drawn from a period when society was most actively engaged in establishing the practice under consideration. Neither dogmatic assurance nor detailed description will prove sufficient to advance understanding and to insure acquiescence in change. What is needed is an analysis of the society in which the practice developed and a comparison of that society with our own.

# THE BASIS OF THE SOCIAL-STUDIES CURRICULUM

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EDUCATION presents in microcosm most of the problems of society. Only a small fraction of it is subject to conscious consideration at any given time and only a small portion of the changes proposed ever gain ready acceptance. The program of the social studies alone fully exemplifies this fact. For, whenever that program has come to need conscious overhauling, society has almost always entertained certain obvious remedies which experience has repeatedly found fallacious. These fallacies have arisen regularly because the pressure for change has come from society, not from the teachers; and in seeking to satisfy the demands of society, educational theorists unfamiliar with either society or the learning process have often confused ends with means. Since these fallacies have persistently recurred with virtually every important demand of society for the modification of the social-studies program, they deserve some attention here.

### 1. PERSISTENT FALLACIES

#### USE OF CURRENT NEWS

On nearly every occasion in the past three centuries, as Professor Henry Johnson has pointed out,<sup>1</sup> when the

<sup>1</sup> Henry Johnson, *An Introduction to the History of the Teaching of the Social Studies*, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1933.

program of the social studies has become a matter of conscious concern, there has been a proposal that teachers use current news as the chief medium of social instruction. Society is naturally concerned that the schools should furnish every possible aid to the solution of both its present and its future problems; this concern the teachers of the social studies have always shared. The disagreement has arisen when society, or theorists in the name of society, have insisted that current news be used as the *basis* of instruction. The fact that this procedure has been tried out and rejected somewhere in the civilized world by almost every generation during the past three centuries seems to have had little effect on its proponents.

*Current news deals with too little of present society.* The average adult thinks of the news columns of the daily newspaper as the record of current happenings in society. It is true that news gathering has become worldwide in its organization and that nearly every metropolitan paper has access to this service. The volume of world news, however, is so great that even the largest of the metropolitan newspapers must exercise rigid selection. The selection of news to be printed and the space to be devoted to each item, moreover, is only incidentally on the basis of importance. The daily newspaper is essentially a commercial enterprise and its chief purpose is to further the interests of commerce. In the economy of newspaper management, news usually represents expense in contrast to advertising, whether open or veiled, which always represents income.

Economic pressure, therefore, tends to cut news down to a minimum of space. It likewise tends to modify the

kind of "news" selected. News items are chosen for their interest to the widest circle of readers. Emotional appeal and entertainment value far outweigh social significance as the basis of selection. For example, an outrageous murder, a sensational divorce, an extraordinary feat of adventure, a catastrophe of nature, all of which affect few people at most, regularly command much more space in the average newspaper than important changes in governmental or industrial policy, even though these changes may affect millions of persons. Many newspapers appear to follow a policy of printing as little news of great social significance as it is possible to do without losing subscribers. True, there are a few newspapers, perhaps now an increasing number, which are trying to establish a better balance between socially significant and emotionally appealing news. The fact remains, however, that editors usually print in the news columns only a very small fraction of what might be called socially significant news.

*Current news is haphazard, unpredictable, and unsystematic.* The unsystematic character of news constitutes another important defect in its availability for instruction. During the past few years, for example, the news on the front page has jumped in space quite literally from pole to pole, covering points on both hemispheres and on all five continents and nearly every major type of social activity or social interest. Yet despite the fact that it has touched so wide a range of the social web, its leading item of this day or week may have no apparent connection with that of the next.

It would therefore take the teacher so long a time to trace all the connections of these varied items in and out

of the social web that the interest originally aroused in the pupil would be transferred to some other item of news quite unrelated to the first. The teacher would then be confronted by the alternative of continuing the study of the first item, despite the lost interest of the pupils, or of utilizing the newly aroused interest in another fragmentary study. Either alternative is undesirable, and neither leads to any systematic knowledge of the social web without which none of the items can be clearly understood. This haphazard, unpredictable nature of important front-page news makes its use impossible for systematic instruction. It can be made very meaningful to those who already possess a knowledge of the social web, but it is not a satisfactory way of providing that knowledge.

*News descriptive, not explanatory.* Since it is usually impossible to foretell where an item of front page news will occur, the news agencies must depend upon a staff ready for any emergency. The item may be, and usually is, concerned with some social activity with which the reporter is but vaguely familiar. He can therefore collect only the most obvious material—the what, where, when, and who of the immediate activity. He must devote himself to the description of the occurrence itself, making it as dramatic and appealing as possible. To ferret out cause and to conjecture results on the basis of the opinion of those who know most about the particular matter would require considerable time. Meanwhile, some other item of news may break out in the reporter's territory, before he can trace the fuller ramifications of his first story, and he will then be called away. Furthermore, most editors are inclined

to drop a story as soon as its dramatic elements and its novelty have been exhausted. The result is that the news is almost entirely descriptive and limited. The place of any particular activity in the social web, its relation to other activities, as well as its own further reaches are almost never explained. Yet, without such understanding, most knowledge is vain. The reader who happens to possess a well rounded knowledge of the social web may be able to conjecture the relationships left unexplained, but pupils in school cannot.

An increasing number of newspapers, and more weekly and monthly periodicals, have begun to use exceptionally well-informed reporters on assignments covering particular activities. These reporters are quickly able to trace ramifications of news items both as to cause and probable effects and to include this information in their reports while the matter is still of interest. Such articles, written by well-informed writers who have taken time to trace out the relationship of a particular item to the social web, are correspondingly valuable to readers in or out of school.

In recent years, there have also appeared several periodicals especially designed for the use of pupils in school. Insofar as these periodicals are staffed by persons who are expert both in writing for younger people and in their knowledge of the activities with which the various items are concerned, these more carefully elaborated accounts of news items are a valuable adjunct to instruction. They are, however, handicapped in two respects. Partly because they treat the items with which they deal more fully, they must confine themselves to fewer items. Secondly, they are under the necessity of



discussing items which still possess novelty, if not also drama. They cannot, therefore, afford that prolonged systematic discussion which is essential as the basis for any adequate understanding of society.

*How news may be used to aid instruction in social studies.* In pointing out the deficiencies of current news as the medium of instruction, it has not been our intention either to belittle the importance of current news or to indict the newspaper. It is essential for society to have this news service, now so much more extensive, accurate, and speedy than ever before in history.

Actually, moreover, the newspapers do print much more information about the world today than the average reader might infer from the so-called news column. It requires no great effort of mind to appreciate the fact that the daily pulsations of the stock market recorded on the business pages of the newspapers deal with much more extensive and important portions of the social web than do most of the news columns. If all the organized activities of society were as fully and as accurately chronicled as is the routine activity of the stock market, we should be much nearer a daily record of the present social web. Unfortunately, these financial items are so condensed and so technical that only the initiated can fully appraise their social significance. They therefore constitute unsatisfactory instructional material for the lower schools.

As an essential preparation for the continued practice after they leave school, pupils should become habituated to scanning the current news for anything that may have a bearing upon their own society. The chief service of the schools, however, is to help the pupil build up that

systematic knowledge of the social web through which he will be able to make best use of the agencies of current news. Since the possession of that understanding is essential to intelligent use of the news agencies, and since it is not supplied by them, it becomes the first duty of the schools to furnish such systematic knowledge. It is a second duty of the schools to illustrate at every point the relation of the various items of current news to matters of classroom instruction.

To ensure this double service, the current news should be used from the earliest grades to the last, not as the *basis* of instruction, but as an *incidental part* of every social-studies recitation. There is probably not an issue of current news which does not permit the teacher to point out, or have the pupils point out, some relationship to the systematic material of instruction in the day's assignment. The teacher can and should select only that material, or that portion of the news item, which can be most profitably related to the lesson under discussion. Thus, the cumulative effect of such practice may reveal to the student the right use of news in interpreting the world today and its impending changes.<sup>2</sup>

#### USE OF COMMUNITY STUDY

Another fallacy which recurs almost as frequently as that of studying society through the current news is that of studying the local community. This fallacy has the apparent psychological justification of beginning with the near as a basis of approach to the more remote; it is

<sup>2</sup> For a discussion of current events in the classroom and bibliography see E. B. Wesley, *Teaching the Social Studies*, D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1937.

further supported by the fact that most of the pupils in the schools will spend most of their lives in the community where they were born. The seemingly obvious inference, therefore, is that people will be able to deal more effectively with society if they understand their own community. This line of reasoning leads most people to conclude that the study of the local community should, therefore, occupy a definite place in the curriculum, a definite course being usually prescribed. Thus Salzmann concluded at Schnepfenthal in 1784, when he prescribed the study of Schnepfenthal as the best approach to history, then the only social study.<sup>3</sup> Thus many other theorists have concluded from time to time since then. This thought was doubtless in the minds of the Committee of the National Education Association which, in 1916, recommended as a required course, community civics. No thoughtful teacher of the social studies will quarrel with these authorities about the importance of the community, but few of them will agree that it can be best understood through the direct use of the community itself as the chief basis of instruction. The chief reasons for their objection are here briefly described.

*Community not self-contained.* A close study of a community, small or large, rural or urban, reveals surprising facts. The most striking of these is that the community is neither self-contained nor self-sufficient. Almost none of its activities begin within the community, and very few end there. It produces surprisingly little of what it consumes and consumes only a very small frac-

<sup>3</sup> Johnson, *op. cit.*

tion of what it produces. It has very little, if any, direct influence in determining the prices either of what it consumes or of what it produces.

This insufficiency is clearly reflected in its appearance. The highways leading to it, the network of streets and alleys by which its urban center is interlaced, the railroad terminals with their radiating lines of steel, the spiderlike strands of telephone and telegraph wires, and the radio aerials, all announce a quick and extended interrelationship with the outside world. The flow of traffic, cars with varied license plates, large freight trucks, busses advertising distant destinations, the lines of freight and passenger cars on the railways all again accentuate the nature and amount of this interdependence. Traffic signs, posted advertisements of many products, and the newspapers only serve to confirm the vast interdependence of the community with the rest of the social world. If the community also possesses an airport, this fact is further dramatized.

A full understanding of how any community operates is thus conditioned upon a knowledge of how far its outside relationships extend. Its larger buildings, the courthouse, the post office, churches, banks, warehouses, factories, and theaters proclaim immediate affiliation with centers as widespread as the state capital, Washington, Wall Street, Hollywood, Liverpool, London, or Rome, as well as intermediate places. An examination of the products on sale in its stores will probably disclose constant, if indirect, communication with every part of the world, including the forests of Africa, the oases of Arabia, the cities of China, and the Arctic wastes of ice and water. In brief, it can quickly be dis-

covered that nearly every considerable community of our country is thus in constant contact with all parts of the world.

*Community related to past.* Less obvious, though no less real, is the relationship of each community to the past. The way in which the buildings are built and laid out is only to a very slight extent peculiar to the community. These matters of architecture can be traced back eastward through this country to England, or to the continent of Europe, even to the Mediterranean world, and, in time, back at least as far as two thousand years. The people, themselves, have come from elsewhere, for the larger the community, the wider the place of origin of its inhabitants. In some American cities the racial and national strains are drawn from nearly the whole world. These people have brought with them a variety of manners and customs, attitudes, and ideas which they apply to the everyday concerns of life. They have brought, also, a variety of religions to which they and their descendants continue to adhere. The creed and the ritual of their religions, the organization and methods of business, the form and method of government, all represent the accumulated ideas of thousands of years. The questions and problems which are raised in these fundamental processes of society are daily solved with answers worked out by leaders in religion, business, and government throughout the ages. Indeed, most of the important solutions nowadays offered are easily identified as to the time and place and circumstances under which they were devised.

The community, therefore, is discovered to be not an entity in itself, but one in which every important

activity is subject to influences from every part of the world and from the whole sweep of time. The community is the point of contact between the individual and this whole social web. It is the place where the social web takes on reality, where the individual's knowledge of it is put to use, has its chance to function. The more he knows of that social web, the more fully he will come to understand his community. The individual who is aware of this fact will continue to discover new aspects of his own community all the days of his life. Since the whole seamless web of society is operating there constantly, he can continue to acquire new knowledge as well as to find further application for the knowledge already possessed. To understand the community, as to understand the current news, requires a knowledge of the whole social web. The greater that knowledge, the more fully both will be understood. Every course in the social studies should reveal the relationship of that knowledge to the activities of the community.

*Community and social friction.* Serious social friction and social lag have arisen from failure to realize this close and widespread connection between the community and the outside world. Though evident, the relationship is not obvious. People may grow up in a community and at most remain only vaguely aware of it. Left in ignorance of the fact that the community is not limited to its immediate geographical boundaries, people may become inclined to think of themselves as separate and different from people even in their immediate neighborhood.

It is peculiarly unfortunate that almost none of the community surveys or community studies, of which so

many have been made in recent years, have included consideration of this wider relationship always involved. Even *Middletown*,<sup>4</sup> which has become a classic among such studies, is largely confined to the elements of the community which are directly visible, and the reader is left with the impression that all of the city's life is explained in terms of the visible items commented upon. Not even the hotel space, which is the most obvious index to outside influence, was included in that survey.

Thus people may remain unaware of the fact that rural life and urban life are two aspects of the same community, unaware that the urban center is merely the most convenient spot for the rendering of those occasional, but essential, services which the farmer requires. Without the rural farms, there could not, in most cases, be urban centers. Without recurrent visits from rural inhabitants for business or pleasure, health, and education, there would be few towns or cities. The farmer is just as truly a member of any urban community as are those who live there constantly, and his presence in town is possibly even more essential to trade. Ignorance of this fact helps to explain the development and bitterness of that prejudice between these two elements of the same community which is so commonly reflected in state legislatures. Likewise, ignorance of the many outside influences bearing upon every community has often resulted in futile efforts to control local activities—efforts which have not only hurt the community itself but have also seriously disturbed other communities.

<sup>4</sup> Robert S. Lynd and Helen Merrell Lynd, *Middletown, A Study in Contemporary American Culture*, Harcourt, Brace & Company, New York, 1929.

Such instances are too numerous and frequent to require specific illustration, but they all point out the danger of confining community study to a limited geographical area.

They emphasize the fact that the understanding of the community, like the understanding of current news, is one of the ends of education, capable of constant improvement throughout life. It cannot be used as a means of study without impairing the end. The community should therefore *always* be studied, not merely at one time; and every item of class study should be scrutinized for any light which it may throw upon the activities of the community as well as upon the current news. Only thus can the pupil be made aware of its infinite possibilities for further exploration and study throughout life.<sup>5</sup>

#### USE OF WORDS

*Words do not convey full meanings.* A third recurrent fallacy to which the social-studies program is peculiarly liable arises from the assumption that social terms convey definite and identical meaning to every reader or listener. Most words expressing social relationships, however, are not definitions, as are words similarly applied to the material world. They are rather characterizations of more or less complex social experience, usually, though not always, suggesting some distinctive feature of the experience. Their value in transmitting

<sup>5</sup> For a discussion of the use of the community in teaching the social studies and a bibliography of the subject see the forthcoming yearbook of the National Council for Social Studies being prepared under the direction of Ruth West, Lewis and Clark High School, Spokane, Washington.



information is, therefore, directly dependent upon the extent to which speaker and listener have had the same or similar experiences and understand in common the terms used in referring to those experiences. Nearly all the words used to indicate social relationship are thus allusive, rather than descriptive. Therefore, the acquisition and identification of the social experience involved is essential to an understanding of the term. Without the conscious recognition of this experience, the acquisition of the words is mere verbalism, empty of meaning.<sup>6</sup>

Failure to recognize this general characteristic of the terms of social relationship is a common cause of inefficiency in social co-operation, whether in business, government, or even in education. It is a pitfall into which a person with wide knowledge may fall as readily as one with little or none. The former, forgetting the detailed knowledge upon which his remarks are based, assumes that his words mean to any hearer able to repeat them exactly what they mean to himself, though that hearer may have none of the knowledge or experience which the speaker has acquired.

Perhaps it is this situation which has led some curriculum makers to assign to the early grades in the school system the teaching of certain social concepts which can only be derived from mature study of business, government, and society. The fact that pupils are able to repeat the words they are set to learn is no real

<sup>6</sup> For a more extended discussion of the limitations of words in the social studies see T. L. Kelley and A. C. Krey, *Tests and Measurements in the Social Studies*, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1934; also Ernest Horn, *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies*, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1937; and Stuart Chase, *The Tyranny of Words*, Harper and Brothers, 1938.

indication of their understanding of them. Social concepts can have little or no meaning to pupils until they have experienced the situations from which the words have been derived or to which they may be applied. Unless the terms are thus definitely tied to experience, they will be soon forgotten or, if remembered, will persist as pure verbalisms. This danger can be best avoided if the instruction is primarily experiential and the term related to the experience. Thus the body of experiential knowledge of the social web can be built up in a way to give meaning to the expressions used by informed society.

After his retirement from Teachers College of Columbia University, Professor Henry Johnson was asked by a group of teachers to state what he had discovered to be the secret of good teaching in the social studies. He replied that the formula was a very simple one. "Relate the instruction to the child's experience; and if he has not had the essential experience, provide him with material which recounts such experience." This advice can hardly be improved upon.

*How words acquire meaning.* If Professor Johnson's suggestion is regularly carried out, there will be little basis for the recurrent and insistent criticism that so much of school instruction is unreal. For those activities will seem real in which an individual engages directly or whose effects upon himself he can clearly recognize. This recognition is dependent more upon emotional than upon physical proximity. Thus, activities within the pupil's own neighborhood in which he is not concerned may seem just as remote and unreal to him as though they were a thousand miles away in space

or a thousand years in time. Yet these are just as real to some of his neighbors as his own experiences are to him, and both are part of that seamless web of society by which all are affected. The student can be made to gain some sense of this truth by having it repeatedly called to his attention.

For matters more distant in space or time, the sense of reality can be imparted by the addition of many intimate details. Thus a novel frequently seems to a reader much more "real" than a textbook in history. The difference lies chiefly in the more extensive treatment of daily life in a novel, while a text tends to remain in the realm of the large, abstract, and remote. It is this wealth of intimate detail in his own life that leads the reader to recognize reality in the similar adornment of fictional life. The teacher's most effective method of gaining the same sense of reality for the subject matter of the social studies lies in his ability thus to relate the activity considered in the classroom to a similar activity in the local community or in the current news. These references will supply both the emotional elements and the vivid detail usually lacking in textbooks or comparable reading matter. Thus the teacher can extend the experience of the pupils beyond that which they have themselves encountered and can build up an experiential basis for the understanding of the terms of social science.

## 2. FUNCTIONAL SOCIAL KNOWLEDGE

### ITS CUMULATIVE ACQUISITION

If the secret of good teaching in the social studies lies in the teacher's ability to connect the classroom in-

struction with the pupil's experience, so, too, does the pupil's ability to utilize that instruction in his own dealings with society. This is functional knowledge, whose absence among the outcomes of school instruction has been so much deplored by critics, whose presence has been so often demanded.

The nucleus of functional social knowledge is begun with life itself. Its beginnings arise from the individual's effort to satisfy his inner urges and to adjust himself to both his static and his active environment. Since during the earliest years of life these adjustments must be made through the help of others, the process is a social one and results in the acquisition of a body of functional social knowledge. The process involves both the identification of the experience and its ready recall as an aid in dealing with the recurrence of the same, or similar, experience. The range of the pupil's experience continues to widen as he grows up, and his store of functional knowledge increases more or less rapidly according to his ability to identify the experience and to recognize its recurrences. Left to himself, the process might be very slow, but benign influences about him—family, neighbors, church—all help him to hasten the process. In the interests of society as well as of the individual, the schools are directly charged with responsibility for supplementing these agencies. Their contribution to the accumulation of functional knowledge is directly dependent upon two factors: the extent to which they are able to relate their instruction to the pupil's experience, and how far they are able to expand his experience vicariously so as to overcome any important limitations which the local environment may impose.

## ANALYSIS OF EXPERIENCE

The acquisition of functional knowledge, whether from personal or vicarious experience, involves an analysis of the experience, a separation of its unique and inert elements from its universal and dynamic elements. In every social situation or social experience, there is involved a complex of definite individuals, definite time, definite place, and a peculiar combination of circumstances. These definite elements are, as a rule, unique, and will never occur again in exactly that same fashion. On the other hand, the social needs or forces involved in any experience are universal and may recur indefinitely, affecting all later development. It is probably safe to assert that every problem of social relationship which has ever occurred is still an actual or potential problem today. The specific solutions attempted in other times or places may differ, but the problem continues to arise. It is in terms of these universal and dynamic elements that the materials of classroom instruction may be most profitably related to the activities of the local community or to current happenings.

Teachers can ensure this more vital connection by extending their questions beyond the who, what, where, and when to include the questions of why, how, and what of it. This requires conscious effort on the part of the teacher because the inert and unique elements are the more arresting to the pupil's attention. That adults as well as pupils in school are prone to stop with the inert elements is indicated by the questions on current events published in periodicals or asked over the radio. If the teacher, in dealing with vicarious experience, does

not carry the analysis beyond that point, the knowledge which even a conscientious pupil acquires will consist chiefly of a collection of names of persons, places, dates, and material concomitants. Such information is almost purely verbalistic, of some value for purposes of display, but for little else.

### 3. WASTEFUL PRACTICES IN EXISTING CURRICULA

The past generation has witnessed the accumulation of various wasteful practices inimical to the development of efficient knowledge about society. Doubtless they are due chiefly to the difficulties involved in adjusting instruction to the greatly increased enrollment in the schools. It is probably equally true that each of these practices is motivated by good intentions. Yet their total effect is harmful both to the best interests of pupils and to society.

#### SEPARATE CURRICULA FOR EACH ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISION OF THE SCHOOLS

The chief source of waste has long been to schedule a required course in American history for each of the administrative divisions of the school system—for the elementary grades, the junior high school, the senior high school, and the junior college. In many instances, modern history and courses in American government under various titles have also been offered in two or more of these divisions. The fault is not in the fields of subject matter involved, for there is more than enough learning required in each one of them to engage the ablest scholar a whole lifetime. The error is, rather, in the way in which these courses have been conducted

and in the difficulty of overcoming certain conventional practices. One of these conventions is that each course must have a common textbook. Another is that the textbook must "cover" the subject. Still another is that the pupils are expected to move as a class systematically through the textbook from beginning to end.

The result of this combination of forces has been that the pupils have been offered a narrative account of the main events of American history from the period of exploration up to within a year of the time at which the chosen text was published. Since nearly all of these textbooks are approximately the same length, the practice has resulted in virtual repetition of the material at four successive levels. This repetition has been so marked that in some instances textbooks written for one level have been used elsewhere in at least three of the levels, if not actually four. Thus, pupils have faced the possibility of taking the same course three or four times with the same textbook.

Furthermore, since a textbook writer naturally feels obliged to "cover" the subject, he has usually tried to include the whole narrative of American history—a narrative supposedly learned by the pupils at the first exposure. The writer has, therefore, tended to refrain from elaborating many, if any, of the events narrated, and to mention only the most general features and leading actors. The material of these texts has therefore remained highly abstract and too remote from the life of the ordinary individual to convey any strong sense of reality. So general has been this fault of textbooks that when one author undertook to write a book for college use nearly twice as long as the usual text and to

elaborate the main events with vivid detail, one competent teacher insisted that the book was better adapted for use in the junior high school, or even in the intermediate grades, than any of the other textbooks on the market.

Another conventional requirement is that the class must complete a textbook within a certain period of time—a requirement becoming increasingly difficult to fulfill. For teachers who have been accustomed to level their instruction at the average of the class and to concentrate the larger part of their energy upon the lower half of the class have found the progress of the constantly enlarging classes very slow. Therefore, in recent years it has been very difficult for everyone in a class to cover a whole text by the end of the school year.

It has thus become possible for students to have taken American history four times by the end of the junior college without at any time having the important events of American history brought nearer home to them than the general's tent, or the halls of Congress, or the White House, or the national treasury building. Just how the average pupil must feel when he hears his teacher in the junior college, or even in the senior high school, gravely recounting the discovery of America by Columbus has never been adequately described; but his emotions cannot be very complimentary either to the intelligence of the teacher or to the usefulness of the school.

Wasteful repetitions in courses dealing with government and modern history are only somewhat less striking because less numerous. Oddly enough, a reaction against instruction which is neither "real" nor "up-to-



date" has led to the baneful practice of offering to pupils in the intermediate grades concepts derived from the highly complex and intricate operations of current world society. Not only do pupils then lack the background essential to understanding the abstract terms required in such a discussion, but also they often are conditioned against further study at a more appropriate age.

#### EFFORT TO COVER EVERYTHING IN EVERY CLASS

Just as the writer of a textbook feels under compulsion to include everything which anyone might look for under the title of his book, so well-informed and conscientious teachers are usually anxious to give their pupils the benefit of everything they know within the year. The result is the same in both cases. Teachers are unable to devote adequate attention to the topics which they treat because they feel constrained to present all topics in the limited space or time at their disposal. They present only the general and remote centers of each topic; they offer abstractions without sufficient illustration; they crowd in as many principles, maxims, and concepts as possible. The effect of this procedure is to overwhelm the pupil with information. In his effort to assimilate it all, he assimilates little or nothing because some new important generalization is thrust upon him before he has quite grasped the one preceding. He must, therefore, either forget what he has partially learned or retain only a fragment of it—a fragment too often hopelessly entangled in his mind with other fragments. Furthermore, he is deprived of learning the meaning of important generalizations later because the vague recollection of having heard them before will de-

stroy any eager interest in them. The net result of this practice of trying to teach too much is that the pupil is thereby forced to learn too little.

#### EFFORT TO RELATE EVERYTHING TO EVERYTHING ELSE.

##### HORIZONTAL INTEGRATION

Some curriculum makers, realizing that all knowledge is interrelated, have therefore undertaken to trace the relationship between all instruction simultaneously. The fact that teachers in the early elementary grades are able to point out simple relationships between simple branches of learning has aroused the false hope that this achievement can be repeated equally well in the later grades. On this basis, curricula have been constructed not only for individual school systems engaged in experimental work, but even for some states. This procedure disregards the fact that the mastery of each subject demands a widening and deepening of technical knowledge in the field studied. The relationship, so obvious in the simpler aspects of the subject, ceases to be obvious as soon as each subject is traced more deeply into the technical aspects of each field of learning. This variety of knowledge is, of course, essential to further work in each field and its acquisition requires long patience and sustained effort.

The effort constantly to relate all subjects thus prevents, or interferes with, the acquisition of full technical knowledge, and deprives the pupils of those tools for further learning which are so essential to adult activity. At best, the procedure may expand intellectual activity to include scattered elementary bits of knowledge in many fields, though usually even that outcome

is doubtful. At worst, it holds the mental activities of the pupil to an elementary level throughout the secondary-school years, leaving the task of acquiring essential knowledge and skills until the adult years.<sup>7</sup> Whether society or the pupil can afford such waste of the best learning years has been too little considered either by the advocates of horizontal integration or by parents who may too easily mistake range of information for depth of understanding.

NEGLECT OF ABLE PUPILS IN ORDER TO HELP THOSE  
OF LESS ABILITY

Perhaps the most serious waste involved in the adjustment of the schools to changed conditions is to be found in the common neglect of abler students. Since social policy and educational administration frown upon failure of pupils and consequent retardation in the lower grades, teachers have too often applied their best energies to bringing pupils of lower ability up to the level of such standards as are still maintained. Doubtless they have comforted themselves by the reflection that the brighter pupils would take care of themselves. Unfortunately, there are usually some of these brighter pupils who do exactly that, thus fostering the teacher's delusion. The chief damage, however, occurs in the case of the normal, healthy youngster of average, and better than average, ability who derives much of his pleasure from other than studious activities. His inclination to-

<sup>7</sup> For a careful study of the dangers involved in horizontal integration see Howard E. Wilson, *The Fusion Studies in the Junior High School*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1933.

ward the acquisition of useful knowledge requires stimulation, direction, and guidance. Without that help, he will do as little studying as is possible in order to meet requirements. The general use of the new-type test to measure progress has tended to lower standards to the point where nearly all pupils can now show a passing achievement. It therefore requires little or no effort on the part of the average, or better than average, pupil to do so. As a consequence, such pupils, in most of our crowded school systems, have been indulged in habits of mental laziness during these vital learning years. This condition has prevailed long enough to reveal some of its consequences.

*Consequences of such neglect.* For example, Dean J. B. Johnston of the University of Minnesota, in a recent study of the relative performance of students in college and high school, found a disproportionate number of failures occurring among students of relatively high mental ability, the proportion being noticeably higher in the case of students who came from crowded school systems than among those who came from less crowded schools.<sup>8</sup> One disturbing feature revealed by his study was the moral effect of the practice. Too large a proportion of pupils of relatively high ability, once inured in high school to habits of mental laziness, fail in their subjects when confronted by the more exacting requirements of college classes, and drop out of college. Some of these students later encounter the disciplining influence of practical experience and then return to continue their education. Many of them, however, are permanently dis-

<sup>8</sup> J. B. Johnston, *Scholarship and Democracy*, D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1937.

abled because they have failed to learn in the secondary schools how to use their minds. Though the damage is more clearly noticeable in the case of this group of failing college students, yet those who remain in college often also reveal the atrophying effect of too little early demand on their abilities.

*Experience of society on this point.* The experience of society does not afford any justification for the systematic neglect of its mental resources involved in such wasteful practices. Even in times past, when life was simpler, societies found it wise to discover and train their abler minds for the conduct of their common affairs. Biological inheritance, unfortunately, does not insure the persistence of superior mental abilities in the offspring of those who possess it. The combination of genes which produce such ability may, in fact, occur almost anywhere in society. The task of discovery and training is, therefore, a laborious one and must be done each generation, or rather, continuously.

Those societies which have sought to simplify the task by confining the conduct of affairs too narrowly to a limited group on the basis of inheritance—as, for instance, the later Roman Empire, eighteenth-century France, or nineteenth-century Russia—illustrate the disastrous consequences of such procedure. Likewise, those societies which have gone to the opposite extreme of assuming that everyone possesses the necessary ability and knowledge to conduct public affairs have now been in existence long enough to demonstrate the dangers of that assumption.

So far as evidence is available, those societies are best conducted which make definite provision, not only

for the discovery and training of superior ability, but also for the use of such persons in the conduct of public affairs. Some societies, more or less clearly recognizing such a principle, have sought to use it by selecting a few of the best minds and training them for public service and ignoring the rest, as though superior ability were an absolute, rather than a relative, matter. Such societies, however, have usually had to maintain themselves by force because the people at large were not sufficiently trained to comprehend the values of the social policies inaugurated. When that force finally weakened, those societies have collapsed, usually in a state of nearly complete chaos. Presumably that society is best able to adjust itself to the changing world conditions in which all degrees of ability are recognized and trained to the fullest extent possible.

Leadership in such a society will be more quickly and more fully appreciated and more easily replaced. The burdens and responsibilities will be lessened, because they are more widely shared. However the problem be viewed, a policy of neglect and waste of mental resources is opposed to the best interests of all the people. Our society has succeeded almost perfectly in devising methods for discovering and training athletic ability. It should not prove difficult to approach a similar goal in a much more important undertaking—the discovery and training of mental ability.

#### CULTURE-EPOCH THEORY MISLEADING

For some time in the past and among some educators today the culture-epoch theory has been regarded as a sound basis for the curriculum in the social studies.

This theory holds that the individual in his development recapitulates the cultural advance of the race and that accordingly the social-studies program should present the successive stages of cultural advance. Such a scheme would seem to accord with the scientific theory of evolution, and it has the distinct pedagogical merit of moving from the simple to the complex.

Upon closer examination, however, the theory seems misleading. Culture is often as much a matter of externals as it is of inner development. Anthropology recognizes that an apparently simple, primitive society, as judged by its externals, may have a very highly complicated system of social mores. There is corresponding evidence to indicate that some people virtually live the life of savages in the midst of the most highly civilized surroundings. Neither the member of the primitive society nor of the civilized society inherits his social knowledge. All that he learns he must learn within the limits of a single lifetime. Furthermore, there is no inevitable, or even regular, development of civilization. Societies whose members presumably represent the same length of descent have exhibited simultaneously nearly the whole range of cultural development. That is true even today. Similarly, the same societies are capable of retrograding as well as of advancing; and history offers instances of most highly advanced societies reverting in a very short space of time to a state of approximate barbarism. In view of such reflections, the culture-epoch theory can scarcely be considered a safe guide for curriculum construction. It would seem, instead, essential in a civilized society to acquaint each new generation with that civilization as early and as fully as possible.

## CYCLE PLAN OF CURRICULUM CONSTRUCTION

Another plan widely used in the construction of curricula is that of two or three cycles during the elementary and secondary school years. The program, simple at first and increasingly complex thereafter, is offered at two or three successive stages in the progress of the pupil. Thus, American history with its European backgrounds followed by a course in civics might be offered in the intermediate grades, again in the junior high school, and a third time in the senior high school. Many school systems still do approximate this plan of curriculum. Like the culture-epoch plan, it has the apparent advantage of proceeding from the simple to the more complex.

Unfortunately this plan has resulted in excessive repetition in this country, the third cycle in too many cases offering very little, if any, advance over the first. The experience of France with the three-cycle plan is not encouraging for its further use. Their school system is more highly centralized than our own. Their secondary schools enroll a relatively selected group of students, all of whom hope to complete the whole curriculum. Planned more minutely, supervised more closely than most of our curricula, their three-cycle plan was nevertheless abandoned because it involved too much repetition. Under such a system, pupils not only are forced to go over ground which they already know, but are also prevented from learning much that is new.

## 4. ADVANCE IN KNOWLEDGE OF SOCIETY

Studies of grade placement of material in the social



studies have indicated that pupils have little difficulty in grasping concrete items of fact about any topic. Their inclination is to learn such items as definite and separate facts. Pupils, likewise, have relatively little difficulty in learning verbal formulae, such as definitions or statements of principles. They tend to learn these as combinations of words, irrespective of application. The difficulty lies, rather, in their varying ability to grasp relationships, whether of a concrete fact to other concrete facts, or of principles to facts. They have less difficulty in learning the relationships of social facts which they can see than the relationship of visible facts to more distant items about which they only know. The abstract as well as the complex elements present the chief difficulty. Progress in acquiring social knowledge is, therefore, a matter of extending the comprehension of relationships in both these directions. It is a movement from the visible concrete facts toward the knowledge of how these facts are related to each other and, ultimately, to the whole social web. The following program seeks to develop social knowledge on this basis.

## A PROGRAM FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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THE following proposed program of social studies for our region was prepared with a vivid consciousness of the conditions described in the preceding chapters.<sup>1</sup>

Our chief objective in drawing up the plan was to show how the schools can best reveal to the pupils an understanding of our present society. This knowledge, it is believed, will furnish the youth with a trustworthy basis for guessing what the immediate future has in store for them—a guess which each individual, in planning his own affairs, must ultimately make for himself. Others can never relieve him of this responsibility, no matter how positive their guidance, for the acceptance of such direction involves both choice and decision by the individual. The schools cannot save the pupil from the necessity of making his own guess. They can, however, make him aware of as many elements in the situation as possible, thus helping him toward an intelligent choice. All parts of the program, therefore, are directed toward the end of making the operations of the present society as intelligible as possible to every pupil.

Society consists of four elements: the individual himself, the community through which he comes into direct contact with society, current events of world interest and

<sup>1</sup> See note at end of this chapter.

import, and, finally, the larger social world web of which the other three elements are component parts. The pupil's concern with the first two factors is inescapable, whether he is in or out of school. The third can probably never be completely avoided, however successful some people seem to be in knowing as little as possible of current world events. The fourth element, although it affects each individual more than the other three, can be completely ignored. It is, therefore, here that the responsibility of the school is greatest. For it is the school, and only the school, which gives most pupils any large insight into the operation of the whole social web. And it is likewise the school which reveals to most of them the essential interrelationship of the other three elements with this web.

The focus of attention within the schoolroom, therefore, must be fixed upon the knowledge of the larger social web, for the pupils do not, probably cannot, obtain that elsewhere. The knowledge that any important change in the social web affects every other part of that web can only be learned gradually. That important changes in China will, for example, sooner or later cause some changes in Minneapolis, is not obvious. Nor is the average individual disposed to expect any changes in his own social or religious life as a result of important political or economic variations elsewhere. Yet it is precisely such changes in the world web, however remote in space or varied in character, which ultimately explain those occurring within the individual's own community, or even in his own affairs. The task of the school is to show the pupil how the minute affairs of his daily life are just as much a part of that world web

as are more cosmic occurrences at international centers of economic, political, or social life. This task requires the utmost patience and sustained effort, with no assurance that many of the pupils will have become more than dimly aware of this relationship by the time they leave school.

It is not enough to focus attention upon learning the nature of the social web. It is equally essential to indicate at every possible or convenient point the actual relationship of that web to the pupil's own community and to the pupil himself. The educational world has long stressed each of these elements separately. Such instruction, as a rule, has been uniformly arid, whether the school emphasized the world web, or the community, or current events, or all three separately. The vital spark, the relationship of these to each other, and above all, to the individual pupil, has been missing. Only the very exceptional pupil who was able to work out these connections for himself has ever obtained much value from such instruction. Most pupils are capable of learning this interrelationship, but will usually not do so without the conscious help of the teachers in the schools.

Herein lies the greatest possibility of improving instruction in the social studies. The teachers must be alert for every opportunity to connect the material of the course with the community in which the pupil lives, and, wherever possible, with the life of the pupil himself.

To accomplish this, the teacher must have some knowledge of the experience which the pupil has already had and be ready to extend that experience either

through the medium of the local community or vicariously through the medium of vivid recitals of experiential material. It is to be expected, of course, that the pupil's age and background will constitute a restrictive limit to what may be accomplished at any given time. As the child's knowledge widens and increases, his capacity for extending his experience either directly or vicariously will likewise increase. Teachers must be content merely to extend the pupil's knowledge of relationship beyond the point previously reached, and should not expect to girdle the globe in a single year.

The program here presented assumes that at every stage the teachers will try to relate the pupil's enlarging knowledge of the social web (1) to the activities of the local community; (2) to current changes; and, above all, as far as is possible, (3) to the experience of the pupil himself. That is to say, the social studies acquire life and meaning and yield real value to the pupil only insofar as the teacher consistently endeavors to weave together the *here and now* with the *there and then* and to show the connection existing between the remote in space and time and the immediate both in the community and in the pupil's own life. To emphasize this fact of interrelationship, the program is here summarized, showing the four elements in parallel columns (pp. 58-59).

### 1. GENERAL DISCUSSION OF CURRICULUM

The detailed course of study containing outline, bibliography, and pedagogical suggestions, grade by grade, was prepared by teachers of the several grade levels working together. However strange it may appear to

think of primary teachers in a common seminar with teachers at the college level, yet the experience was mutually beneficial. The college teachers there learned for the first time the extent of the experience and learning which pupils have usually had before they enter college. Similarly, the primary-grade teachers there learned for the first time the social significance and implications of the concepts and materials which they had been teaching to their more youthful pupils. This exchange of information was extremely helpful in constructing a vertically integrated program and in avoiding that overloading of the grade levels which has accounted for much futile instruction. In this common seminar, the teachers came to realize that by trying to do less in each grade they could actually, by combined effort, accomplish more.

As stated above, those who prepared the detailed program sought to include in their calculations all the conditions mentioned in the first two chapters of this book. The program was planned to serve, not a group of pupils selected for their academic qualifications and intent upon a career in the learned professions, but the whole population of school age destined for the whole range of vocations demanded in modern society. It was planned to serve a public school system in which pupils are remaining to their sixteenth year or later, and in which, at least as far as the social studies are concerned, promotion is more or less according to age and not according to scholastic attainment. The program was, furthermore, planned to be sufficiently elastic to challenge the capacity of the ablest, while at the same time offering material within reach of the least academically

# SUMMARY OF REGIONAL PROGRAM IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

KNOWLEDGE OF THE SOCIAL WEB	RELATING COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES TO SOCIAL WEB	UTILIZING INDIVIDUAL APTITUDES AND ABILITIES	RELATING CURRENT EVENTS TO SOCIAL WEB OR COMMUNITY
<b>GRADES 1 TO 3</b> Recognition of simple social experience in symbols—pictorial and verbal. Extension of knowledge of time and space by illustrations of experiences in other times and other lands.	Constant reference to experience at home, at school and on way. Possible visits to local centers of activity, e.g., store, factory, public building.	Practice in reading pictures and books, in speaking, in writing, in drawing, in modeling, in building, in acting.	Relatively little—current happenings of great interest in the neighborhood—also the pictorial material in newspapers.
<b>GRADE 4</b> Simple descriptive geography of world and enlarging vocabulary of social terms with illustrations from other lands.	Identification of simple geographic features of local region, recognizing more striking products of other regions used in community.	Continuation of practice in skills; more definite use of those skills in connection with materials of the course.	Use of pictures of various parts of world appearing in newspapers—also accounts of more striking events in various places.
<b>GRADES 5 AND 6</b> Simple narrative history of development of our society from early beginnings in Europe to present. Additions to geographical knowledge of world and intensification of geographical details and techniques in American development. Time extended to ancient world with treatment from colonial days.	Discovery of similar developments in local regions. Discovery of local participation in chief events of national development. Noting developments in grain and dairy industries. Visits by individuals or groups to points of interest in locality—reports by individuals already familiar with these points.	Continued practice in skills but definitely related to materials of the course. Encouragement of the practice of skills outside of school. Recognition, when pertinent, of outside achievements. Use of group study projects.	Increasing use of newspaper and other periodical accounts of incidents related to places or events treated in the course. The more striking changes in transportation.

<p><b>GRADES 7 TO 9</b></p> <p>Development of civilization—prehistory to present. Additions to knowledge of world geography. Time extended back to prehistoric beginnings. Emphasis upon vocations and avocations and patterns of activities under varying conditions. Political developments minimized through first two years—enlarged in last year to trace development of political groupings.</p> <p><b>GRADE 10</b></p> <p>Chief geographic patterns of world and social characteristics of patterns.</p>	<p>Continuation of search for similar local developments, local participation in general developments, and effects of past development upon local activities. Locating same and similar activities in local community. Increased individual visits to centers of activity—also group visits. Widening the sense of community to include more extended area.</p>	<p>Encouragement of vocational and avocational interests by suggested readings, arranged visits, and individual reports as the opportunities recurrently arise in class throughout the three years. Less time for practice of nonacademic skills in classroom and greater encouragement to practice outside—in other classes or outside of school hours. Group study projects.</p>	<p>Increasing use of current reading matter relating to places, events, vocations, and problems treated in course.</p>
<p><b>GRADES 11 AND 12</b></p> <p>Chief problems of American society considered in their economic, social, and political aspects.</p>	<p>Recognition of local pattern and of distribution of chief patterns in the nation. Noting distribution of the grain and dairy industries.</p>	<p>Continued encouragement of vocational interests—individual or group visits—reports by individuals. Group study projects.</p>	<p>Continuation of practice followed in previous year.</p>
<p><b>GRADE 13</b></p> <p>Chief factors in interrelationship of contemporary world society.</p>	<p>Recognition of the operation of these problems in the local area and the relation of local to national interests.</p>	<p>Individual vocational and avocational interests to discover interrelationships with national problems.</p>	<p>Closer study of technical parts of newspaper as well as news columns, e. g., market and social pages.</p>
	<p>Recognition of the operation of world relationships within the community.</p>	<p>Continued use of individual outside interests.</p>	<p>Systematic reading of daily papers—all parts as these may be pertinent.</p>



minded. It was intended also to stimulate all of the pupils to continue their interest in the study of society, and to stress the vital importance of this study to their own careers. The program thus takes into account the needs of both pupils and society, and considers the child as well as the subject matter.

In the following pages the program formulated by this seminar of teachers will be discussed stage by stage through the twelve or thirteen years of the public school system. This discussion will include a summary of the distinctive characteristics usually developed by pupils at the different grade levels and will indicate how, at each stage, knowledge of the social web and of the community activities may be enlarged. Suggestions will also be made as to how important current news may be related to the pupils' individual interests and to the community. At the close of this discussion, this program will be considered in its relation to the chief public aims of the social studies—*i.e.*, in its relation to the pupil's knowledge of American history, of the Constitution of the United States, of local civic and vocational information.

## 2. THE ELEMENTARY GRADES: I–VI INCLUSIVE

### GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

Instruction in the elementary grades is, as a rule, not departmentalized to any great extent. The same teacher teaches practically all the subjects. The same pupils remain together throughout the day, most of the time in the same classroom. The same teacher may continue with the same class for two or three years and

is almost certain to remain with the class throughout the year. The teachers can thus discover the individual traits of their pupils to an extent seldom equaled in the later grades. During the six years represented by these grades, the attitude of the pupils, despite some initial reluctance and resistance on the part of many, is one of genuine eagerness to learn both in and out of school. The rate of learning and the enlargement of social experience during these years doubtless approximates the extraordinary rate of the pupil's physical growth. At this stage, the pupils are aware that they have much to learn; they have faith in the teacher's judgment about what to learn, and they strive to acquire as much of this learning as possible.

It has become customary for teachers in the elementary schools to have the pupils engage in "activities" which permit the development of a very wide range of abilities and individually preferred forms of expression.<sup>2</sup> These forms of expression include speaking, acting, writing, drawing, modeling, molding, and carving, as well as reading and collecting and organizing materials of various kinds. These activities within the schools, as well as spontaneous or ordered activities outside the schools, afford the pupils wide opportunity to discover their own superior forms of expression and to improve their skill in the use of them. It is needless

<sup>2</sup> The past year has witnessed the appearance of two books, and the announcement of a third, on methods of instruction in the social studies which make unnecessary any elaboration of methods here. The works by Edgar B. Wesley and Ernest Horn have already been cited. The third is the promised revision of Henry Johnson's *Teaching of History*, The Macmillan Company, New York. Despite the similarity of title and theme, these three books supplement each other to a remarkable degree and all should have a place in the teacher's library.

to underline the bearing of this experience on the discovery of many skills and proficiencies directly related to the major problems of vocational and avocational choices. These skills come into use in connection with the whole range of study in the elementary years. Since the same teacher is concerned with nearly the whole range of those studies, she can do more than discover each pupil's individual preferences and excellencies of expression. She can also utilize that knowledge not only to vitalize the whole range of elementary study, but also to create an enduring interest in the social studies.

#### GRADES I-IV

The first three grades have long been designated as primary grades in which pupils are supposed to learn the prime academic skills, reading and writing. In a sense, the function of these grades is to make the pupils literate, and the practice has been to hold pupils at each level until they have gained effective use of these skills. In recognition, however, of an altered policy of promotion, the fourth grade has also been included in this study as one of the primary grades. For though at that level most of the pupils will have attained the necessary reading ability to undertake intermediate work, yet there will still be a fair number requiring primary instruction.

#### BASIC MATERIAL

No serious change is suggested in the curriculum for these grades. Included at this level are the social experiences of the pupils at home and in school: the

simple basic concepts of food, clothing, and shelter, transportation and distribution, family, church, school, communication, health, and recreation. The task of the teacher is to help the pupils acquire the customary vocabulary for all these normal and common experiences. In so doing, the teacher is supplying a continuously useful terminology of primary social contacts and experiences.

#### CONTRIBUTION TO THE KNOWLEDGE OF THE SOCIAL WEB

In connection with these topics, the teachers will be able to relate these experiences to similar or different experiences of Indians, Esquimaux, or tropical tribes, and to discuss the past of some of our holidays as well as of some of the familiar devices of social life. Pictures, stories, and activities reproducing the lives of simpler and more primitive peoples can be used to impress this extension of knowledge. Thus, there will be a gradual growth in the pupil's concept of both time and place, though at this level systematic efforts toward that end are hardly possible.

#### USE OF THE COMMUNITY

There is no difficulty in these grades about the use of the community. The pupil's own experiences are constantly drawn upon to fix the vocabulary of standard social usage. This experience can be extended by means of visits about the neighborhood to the more universal social institutions, such as stores. Instruction in social studies during these years is definitely related to life.

## USE OF CURRENT EVENTS OR NEWS

Not yet literate, the pupils during these years may scarcely be expected to read newspapers except for the pictures, especially the comic strips. There is, however, a type of current events which can be used. This is furnished by unusual occurrences in the school district, such as new construction of a striking kind, accidents, changes in rules and regulations affecting the immediate neighborhood. Alert teachers can usually find some way of relating such occurrences either to the children's normal social experience or to their emotional interests. If this effort is steadily made, the task of interesting the pupils in the wider world scene covered by the newspapers will grow easier as the pupils become increasingly literate.

## INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

The usual informal method of conducting work in these primary grades offers abundant opportunity to cultivate the wide range of skills employed in expression and closely related to individual interests. Pupils are usually given every opportunity to test their talents and discover their preferences in these varieties of expression, but it is also possible to indicate the relation of these skills to the activities of society. That is, it can be pointed out even to a very young child how the ordinary skills of speaking, reading, and writing are used in buying food and paying bills and communicating with distant members of the family. During these early years, of course, the pupils still derive most of their knowledge through speech, being able to understand

and intelligently use terms which, for some years to come, they will be unable either to recognize in print or to write. Even at the third-grade level, much of the reading must still be done from pictures, and the ability to write usually lags behind. Teachers are, however, in a position to discover individual aptitudes, interests, and abilities and to offer the pupils opportunity to extend these through reading and other forms of activity.

#### IMPROVEMENTS POSSIBLE

As Miss Rogers has pointed out,<sup>3</sup> there is considerable room for the improvement of the social learning during these primary years. The first of these possibilities, as she has indicated, lies in a systematic survey of the normal, social, experiential resources of the school district. Such a survey will usually indicate that pupils possess a wider range of social knowledge than most teachers suspect. The work of the classroom can be greatly enriched by utilizing this range of experience. The second possibility of improvement lies in the teacher's study of the organization of social science.<sup>4</sup> This effort will enable the teachers to recognize some of the further implications of the primary social experiences of the pupils and will thus open up new doors of interest and learning to teacher and pupil alike. The third possibility of improvement lies in freeing the pupils from the shackling effect of professional word lists, which are usually based only upon the ability to read.

<sup>3</sup> See Chapter V.

<sup>4</sup> Miss Rogers found especially helpful the organized list of specific objectives of the social studies in Charles A. Beard, *The Nature of the Social Sciences*, Chapters VII-X inclusive; Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1934.

By recognizing the fact that the pupil possesses rather extensive oral learning, instruction can be made more vital and effective.

#### GRADE IV

The fourth grade, traditionally regarded as the first of the intermediate grades, is here included with the primary grades. This is necessary in order to meet the effects of a changed administrative policy in promotion whereby pupils are advanced rather on the basis of chronological age than academic attainment. Probably most pupils, even under these conditions, will have attained that degree of literacy formerly insisted upon as the basis for promotion to the intermediate grades. However, there will be some pupils whose knowledge of reading and writing has not advanced far and these will continue to require some of that type of instruction which distinguishes the earlier grades.

The teacher's task has thus been increased and must cover a somewhat wider range of pedagogical devices and prescription. In a sense, this is a real gain, for the situation calls for more informal procedure, more individual attention. Thus the teacher will be able not only to help those whose academic attainments are still in arrears, but will also allow the brighter pupils opportunity to forge farther ahead than was possible under the more formal and uniform class procedure customarily employed.

The seminar adopted, as the basic material for this year, the outline used in the Minneapolis school system. It includes a fanciful account of trips to the more distinctive regions of the world—to the Congo, the Arc-

tic, Arabia, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, and Holland—as well as some reference to the past. This material lends itself readily to the informal procedure required and affords the continued opportunity of using the social experiences of the pupils to extend their knowledge of the chief areas of the globe.<sup>5</sup>

At this level the contribution to the knowledge of the social web is chiefly geographical, though there is also a more definite reach into the past. There is now a greater opportunity to use current events, drawing not only from occurrences in the immediate neighborhood, but also from newspapers. Both the front page and the pictorial sections of the newspaper are certain to contain references to the regions involved in the class study. Teachers should continue to encourage all types of expression and to associate materials of class instruction with individual aptitudes, interests, and abilities. Knowledge of the local community can likewise be extended by looking for similarities and connections as well as differences between it and the regions studied in class.

#### GRADES V AND VI

The pupils in the intermediate grades are literate, able to read and write. They are usually at least ten years of age, active, and eager to learn. Their ability to learn is nearing its maximum, and their attitude, on the whole, is one of willingness to learn whatever the

<sup>5</sup> This type of treatment has recently received severe criticism. See Horn, *op. cit.* For considerations bearing upon the geographical elements in both elementary and secondary schools see Isaiah Bowman, *Geography in Relation to the Social Sciences*, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1933.



school authorities may deem worthy of their attention. Their ten or more years of personal experience have afforded them some basis for a comprehension of time as a factor in social life, and they are ready to begin a systematic study of the development of their own society.

The basic material for these two years is not unlike the familiar sequence of European beginnings of the history of the United States. For the fifth grade, a sketchy background—from the Roman Empire and the beginning of the Christian era—is carried on to the period of the War of 1812, becoming increasingly systematic as it moves along. It includes the more striking leaders and dramatic events of medieval times, the period of exploration and colonization, the early westward movement on this continent, and the formation of a national society here. For the sixth grade, the narrative of national history is brought up to the present time. The emphasis is on the expansion of this country and its internal development. The narrative, with leaders and dramatic incidents, is used as the focus of internal developments. The external relations of our society are only touched upon where necessary, for these are to be developed later in the program.

#### CONTRIBUTION TO THE KNOWLEDGE OF THE SOCIAL WEB

The work of the fifth year affords an easy and natural transition from that of the fourth grade. Additional geographical knowledge is supplied in narrative fashion. One of the teachers in Minneapolis who tried this course last year found it so effective a means of extending the geographical knowledge of her pupils that her fifth-grade class registered a greater gain in that



*By courtesy of Division of Instruction, Minneapolis Public Schools*

## GROUP STUDY UTILIZING VARIOUS SKILLS



*By courtesy of Division of Instruction, Minneapolis Public Schools*

## ANOTHER PHASE OF GROUP STUDY

variety of information than was registered by a number of seventh-grade classes specifically engaged in the study of geography. The greatest advance, at this level, however, is made in the pupil's enlarged appreciation of the development of important social activities in time, and in his awareness of the connection of various local activities with more distant centers, chiefly national. In the plan proposed, a background has been laid at this level for understanding how wide are the ramifications in both space and time of ordinary events.

#### UTILIZING INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Since the subject matter is becoming more systematic, the teachers, even though they still teach practically all the subjects, may be tempted to make their instruction more formal. This tendency must be consciously resisted. Even in connection with the social studies, it is possible to continue the practice of the whole range of forms of expression. The largest proportion of classroom activity should consist of what might be called supervised study, the pupils being engaged individually or in small groups upon study projects related to the basic subject matter. Teachers who tried this program last year were able to improve the pupils' knowledge of society by deliberately making use of their interest in speaking, acting, modeling, molding, drawing, carving, and costume-making as well as in reading, writing, collecting, and organizing material. They found that this procedure not only resulted in a degree of interest seldom equaled, but also that the interest was sustained throughout the year. Furthermore, this prac-

tice seemed to make it easier for pupils without natural academic interest to master academic material.

#### THE USE OF CURRENT EVENTS

The pupils at this period are ready to use newspapers and periodicals and can be led to look there for material related to the places or activities which they are studying in class. Teachers can make it a practice to make use of such connections nearly every school day. Some of the pupils will find it a great pleasure to bring in clippings for the class bulletin board and even to arrange this material for filing in the classroom cases.

#### EXTENDING THE KNOWLEDGE OF THE COMMUNITY

The subject matter for class consideration involves consideration of some social activities as yet outside the pupil's felt experience, as well as wider extension of some activities already noticed. These items may be made the occasion for revealing the operation of the same, or similar, activities within the local community, and the connection existing between them and the matter mentioned in class. Local history, as related by older people who participated in it; buildings going back to the past; or monuments of former days—all these should be explored in connection with the work of these years. The participation of the local community in national events and developments as well as the effect of national events and developments upon it should be pointed out constantly. This procedure will result in a better understanding of both nation and community. Pupils of this age are accustomed to ranging over a wide area and the more adventurous will delight in

exploring these further connections and recounting them in school. Such contributions are usually more helpful than the practice of class excursions, though these too may be employed. The teachers of this region have been aided greatly in this part of their work by the appearance of a comprehensive guide on the history of Minnesota.<sup>6</sup>

### 3. THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL: GRADES VII-IX INCLUSIVE

#### GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

The junior-high-school years present a different problem. For most of the pupils, this period represents years of exceptional emotional stress, during which individual differences are accentuated. This ferment is accompanied by a widening of imaginative range and by a reaching after the remote, sometimes as an escape from pressing, immediate concerns. There is now a marked preference for studying matters beyond the immediate community and a willingness, if not actual eagerness, to reach out to the farthest limits of time and space. There is also, often concealed, an intensified concern about a life vocation. In the classroom the frank eagerness for learning of any kind which was so marked in the preceding years tends to disappear under an attitude of self-conscious timidity and evasiveness.

#### BASIC MATERIAL

In order to meet this situation, class attention, in

<sup>6</sup> Theodore C. Blegen, *Minnesota, Its History and Its People: A Study Outline with Topics and References*, University of Minnesota Press, 1937.

this program, is focused upon the development of civilization from prehistoric times to the present. With reaches into the most remote corners of both time and space, this material is peculiarly adapted to the adolescent imagination. Instead of a year, or two years, in which to make a survey of the cultural development of modern society, pupils are here allowed three years. This more leisurely approach is designed to allow for more individual digression in exploring avenues of real or fancied interest aroused by the survey of successive culture patterns. The emphasis throughout the three years is upon the various activities, vocational and avocational, in which peoples have come to engage. During the first two years, the political elements are kept to the barest minimum necessary to maintain the skeleton framework of chronology. In the third year, especially toward the latter half, more attention is paid to the development of the chief modern political organizations of the world and to the effects of their operations upon our own national development. Chronologically, the first year carries the story of the world's development through the period of the ancient Greeks. In the second year, the development is carried through the Reformation in the seventeenth century. The allotment of the short space of less than three centuries to the ninth grade permits the added consideration of the political developments mentioned above.

#### CONTRIBUTION TO THE KNOWLEDGE OF THE SOCIAL WEB

The pupils are ready now to extend their knowledge of the relationship existing between their own community and the outside world to the limits of both

space and time within which the whole social web is hung. At this stage, these remote relationships can be revealed in little more than their main threads, but they afford the basis for later appreciation of the more minute and complex relationships with which adult life is concerned. Having reached the limits of the social web, the pupils are thereafter provided with a goal toward which to extend their analytical knowledge of society. It is assumed that hereafter the pupils will be constantly aware of the potential ramifications of any social activities of which they become aware. The outline of the social web will have been set.

#### UTILIZING INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Individual differences of pupils are perhaps more important at this stage than at any other during the school years. Possibly it should be said that they require more delicate consideration. The informal procedure of class administration should be continued with a large proportion of the time devoted to supervised study. This will afford the opportunity not only for individual and small group study projects, but also for the teacher to discover individual interests or, what is even more important, to keep pace with the changes of individual interest—changes which, during these years, often occur with almost kaleidoscopic frequency. Much of this interest is vocational and the skillful teacher can guide the pupil to individual reading about vocations which have become recognized in the culture patterns of successive civilizations.

The pupils' diverse interests may be technical and remote from the study of social science, but the teacher



can co-operate with colleagues whose fields of teaching are directly related to the interests involved. It is necessary for the teacher always to remember that it is perhaps as socially important for the pupil to discover that he is not interested in a certain vocation as that he is so interested. Only through wider knowledge acquired either through reading or by other investigation will he discover the extent of his interest. At this stage, indeed, the pupils whose favored forms of expression are non-academic will have relatively little opportunity to practice them in the social-studies classroom. Their manual and other physical skills will have developed to a point at which they are ready for more complicated and extended projects than this classroom will permit. The social-science teacher should, however, continue steadily to relate such specialized skills to the study of society, even though the actual practice of those skills must now be carried on in other classrooms, or even outside of school. The wide variety of social activities treated during these years is certain to offer repeated opportunities for the application of variant skills; pupils should, therefore, be encouraged to bring in or to discuss the products of their particular specialties. The classroom can then be made the forum for appropriate consideration of the relation of these activities to society.

#### UTILIZING CURRENT EVENTS

Since the work of these three years extends to the very limits of time and space, no day can pass without revealing in the current news some item which can be related to what the class is considering, or has recently considered. It is necessary, however, that the teacher

stimulate, encourage, or provide for the recognition of such relationships. It is equally necessary to offer opportunity for those pupils who are especially so inclined to collect, organize, display, and file materials of this nature. Newspapers, periodicals, and archaeological materials are certain to find their way to the classroom with but little encouragement from the teacher.

#### EXTENDING THE KNOWLEDGE OF THE COMMUNITY

The pupil's knowledge of his own community can be vastly extended during these years. Since the basic subject matter deals with the development of every important type of vocational and avocational activity which society has devised as well as the peculiar relationship of these types of activity to each other under successive civilizations, the pupil is challenged to discover how those activities are carried on in his own civilization and in his own community. As he is introduced to the past experience of peoples in devising different ways of conducting government, business, learning, religion, art, and social custom, he can be easily led to discover the same processes going on in these fields today. Matters of his daily life of which he has as yet been only vaguely, if at all, aware, will then begin to assume definite reality and meaning. The pupils should be encouraged to inform the class about their own discoveries of such items. Their genuine curiosity will often lead them to explore a fairly wide range of vocational and avocational activities going on about them, and, since their individual interests are so varied, their reports are certain to extend the knowledge of their classmates. This curiosity should lead them to explore the current activities and the past

history of the community. In Minnesota, the chief local activities—industries related to dairying and grain products—may be linked to a wider knowledge by outlining their development and organization in other civilizations and at successive periods in the history of this state. How, for instance, did the Romans, or the Indians, or the early Minnesota settlers get flour for bread? How is milk distributed in some foreign countries? How is it distributed in Minnesota now as compared with earlier periods? These questions are merely suggestive, pointing the way to innumerable others.

#### 4. THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL: GRADES X–XII

##### GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

In contrast to the more highly imaginative state of mind of the junior-high-school years, the senior high school is characterized by a relatively sophisticated attitude of interest in the immediate and practical concerns of life. This attitude is curiously reflected in the preference for simple, often slang, terminology in preference to the polysyllabic terms often, if so incorrectly, used in the preceding years. In general, the pupils now prefer to deal with the present, the immediate, and the practical. They wish to come to grips with the problems of the present world and to explore vocational possibilities in a realistic and personal fashion. This is the prevailing attitude in these years, even though in many cases it may be more apparent than real. The tendency must, however, be taken into account. Just as the pupils were led, in the junior high school, to learn much about the immediate and the practical while their attention

was focused upon the distant and remote, so now they must be led to learn much about the remote, both in time and space, even though their attention is primarily upon the immediate.

#### BASIC SUBJECT MATTER

As a transition from the world view of the junior-high-school years, the tenth grade is devoted to a study of regional geography. The major distinctive geographical configurations, with their economic and social, sometimes also political, consequences, are treated as units. The concern is with the present and the treatment is analytical as well as descriptive. References to the past, as sketched out during the previous three years, are almost inevitable.

The work of the last two years of high school presented greater difficulty to the seminar than that in any of the earlier years. It was agreed that the work should be more analytical than was customary, especially in the history courses offered during these years. It was also agreed that the work should be more detailed and realistic than was customary in the social-science work commonly offered.

The first solution attempted by the members of the seminar was that of organizing courses in economics, sociology, and politics adapted to these years. The result was not satisfactory. Though the subject matter now treated in only one year was broadened to cover two, the material was too abstract and afforded too little opportunity for concrete illustration. The pupils were lacking in the experiential knowledge needed to give meaning to the abstract terms and concepts with which they were

asked to deal. It was, therefore, agreed that this material might be included as reserve reading matter for the small proportion of students capable of managing the more abstract ideas, but that experiential material must still be used as the basis for common consideration by the whole class. This material was sought in the experience of our own society and organized around the history of the chief economic, social, and political problems of American history. The plan had the advantage of permitting the use of the extensive literature on American history with which almost every community is relatively well provided. It likewise permitted recourse to the personal knowledge of the adults of the community. At the same time, the analytical organization about problems permitted an easy approach to the literature of systematic organization, plan, and theory with which the social sciences are concerned. Some differences of opinion arose in the choice of the most significant problems, as also about the order in which they should be treated. Treated in terms of actual experience, the more heavily economic and social problems seemed more concrete than the political, and in the program here suggested this order has been followed. It remains to be seen how well this approach will work out in practice.

#### USE OF CURRENT EVENTS

Since all of the basic material is apparently focused upon the present, the day's news drawn from all parts of the world has obvious connections with whatever material is being considered. Newspapers and other periodicals, therefore, become automatically an integral part of

every day's reference material and should be so used throughout this period.

#### USE OF INDIVIDUAL INTERESTS AND ABILITIES

The informal methods of the earlier years still have an important place in classroom procedure, though a larger proportion of the time than in the preceding years may be devoted to common class discussion. There is still room for individual and small group-study projects which involve the use of the whole range of types of expression. Pupils genuinely interested in certain vocations should be helped to explore those vocations or other activities by contact with persons engaged in them, and such pupils should be given opportunity to work out the relation of those activities to the problems under consideration. The cruising range of pupils at this age is usually large enough to encompass a fairly large community.

#### EXTENDING THE KNOWLEDGE OF THE COMMUNITY

The problems which are here considered nationally are also local problems. They have a bearing upon local activities and all of them can be connected with the dominant grain- and dairy-product industries. Such relationships are to be considered in connection with each problem. Pupils particularly interested in various aspects of each of the problems can be guided in their contacts with both written and living sources of information and can be drawn upon to contribute vitally to the class discussion. At this stage of the work, the intimate connection between the local community and the

whole social web can be recognized in its practical and realistic actuality. If this is done, there will be little occasion for the continued criticism that instruction in the social studies is not vital, its knowledge not functional, and that pupils are neither interested in nor informed about their own community.

#### 5. JUNIOR COLLEGE: GRADES XIII AND XIV

The junior college marks the parting of the ways for most of the students. The wide range of offerings by the social-science faculties promises to satisfy the needs of those students who desire to continue intensive study of society. It seemed, therefore, unnecessary to make additional provision for these groups, although the initial college courses might well be modified if the entering students should, in time, come up through such a vertically integrated program as is here outlined. The immediate concern of the seminar was with the other groups—those whose major interests lay elsewhere than in social science, whether in further study of other fields or in vocations outside of college.

For these latter groups of students it seemed desirable to provide a final course planned, not only to correct deficiencies in earlier study and to show the interrelationship of the various activities and problems studied separately during the two previous years, but also to stimulate in students a continuous desire to relate current happenings to their whole store of social knowledge. This course, it was hoped, might convince students of the necessity of referring, from time to time, to their accumulated fund of social knowledge—knowledge which so often lies dormant between the school years

and the age of thirty-five, or thereabouts, only to revive later.

A course focused upon the present and involving study of the world-wide interrelationship of the more important activities of society promised most nearly to hold the interests of these older students. In order to avoid mere description and to reveal something of the dynamic effects of the past, a time depth of fifty years was provided. If the same informal teaching procedure employed in the earlier years is followed, the instructor can discover and endeavor to repair the deficiencies of the individual's previous preparation or knowledge. To meet these several needs, one member of the seminar undertook the preparation of a course entitled *The World Today*.

This course was tried out in one college class under unusually difficult conditions. The instructor had no previous knowledge of the students, who came from a widely scattered area. There was little opportunity to discover their special abilities, preferred types of expression, or interests. There was also relatively little classroom study, the time being devoted largely to discussion of assigned topics. The instructor was able, however, to guide the out-of-class study to a certain extent and managed, in the course of the year, to discover a number of individual interests. Once the dominant interest of the student was aroused, there was usually a prompt increase in the amount of voluntary reading and other forms of study. The students were relatively mature and a few were engaged in gainful occupations involving nonacademic skills. As these were discovered, they were made to serve as points of entry into the larger social



web. The knowledge of the community was thus extended until the students learned to look for the operation of world forces in local affairs. The use of current news was, of course, constant throughout the year. There is reason to believe that most of the students in the class materially increased their interest in continued study of social problems.

NOTE: The detailed course of study is still undergoing revision. Doubtless some of the teachers who are trying out the program in various parts of the state will make important improvements in a number of the units. At present it consists of the following parts as prepared by the teachers whose names are indicated:

1. A survey of the social experiential resources of a school district. H. P. Cooper, then principal, Margaret O'Farrell, and Fay Rogers, teachers, undertook various parts of this problem. The account of Miss Rogers appears as Chapter Five in the present volume. All the other items are as yet unpublished studies of the University of Minnesota.
2. A history and description of the dairy industry for the elementary grades. Prepared by Margaret O'Farrell, University of Minnesota.
3. Teaching outline for Grade 1. Prepared by Dora McKibben, County Normal School, Columbus, Wisconsin.
4. Teaching outline for Grade 2. Prepared by Alice Fernow, State Normal School at Lyndon Center, Vermont.
5. Teaching outline for Grade 3. Prepared by Dora McKibben, County Normal School, Columbus, Wisconsin.
6. Teaching outline for Grade 4. Prepared by Aileen Garland of Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada.
7. Teaching outline for Grades 5 and 6. These outlines were begun by W. H. Dutton, Teachers College,

- Tempe, New Mexico; T. E. Jones, principal, Muskogee, Oklahoma; R. C. Peter, principal, Fort Lupton, Colorado; F. Adelyne Southern, Joppa, Missouri; and Elizabeth Philbrook of Oklahoma. This work was coordinated by Hedvig Ylvisaker, University of Minnesota, with the help of Dagney Ylvisaker of Milwaukee, Wisconsin.
8. Teaching outline for Grades 7 and 8. Prepared by Dorothy Bovee, University High School, University of Minnesota.
  9. Teaching outline for Grade 9. Various interruptions prevented the completion of this outline. A tentative draft was prepared by Hedvig Ylvisaker.
  10. Teaching outline for Grade 10. Prepared by Edith Stokes, Corcoran School, Minneapolis, Minnesota.
  11. Teaching outline for Economic and Social Problems of American History, and—
  12. Teaching outline for Political Problems of American History. Prepared for Grades 11 and 12 by Carl S. Meyer, Bethany Lutheran College, Mankato, Minn.; Ilene Lynch, Roosevelt High School, Minneapolis; M. R. Mashek, University High School, University of Minnesota; Robert Clendening, George Engberg, Alma Jensen, Horace T. Morse, and Hedvig Ylvisaker, of the University of Minnesota.
  13. Teaching outline of Economics for Grade 11. Prepared by John K. Langun of the University of Minnesota.
  14. Teaching outline of Sociology for Grade 11. Prepared by Margaret Conway of the University of Minnesota.
  15. Selected readings in Sociology for Grade 11. Prepared by Margaret Conway of the University of Minnesota.
  16. Problems of the dairy industry for use in high school. Three of eight units completed by Wilbur H. Murra, University High School, University of Minnesota.

17. The World Today. Teaching outline for first year of college. Prepared by Hedvig Ylvisaker.
18. Analysis of elements of Constitution treated in the whole program. Prepared by Wilson M. Dokken, Graduate School, University of Minnesota.
19. Test results on experimental trial of program in fifth, sixth and seventh grades of Minneapolis schools. Prepared by Horace T. Morse, University of Minnesota.

In addition to the specific contributions already indicated, Alma Jensen, Horace T. Morse, and Hedvig Ylvisaker of the teaching staff, and Zephyra Shepherd, executive secretary for this curriculum project, took part in the preparation of all of this material for trial use.

## VERTICAL INTEGRATION OF THE PROGRAM

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### 1. PROCEDURE COMMON TO WHOLE PROGRAM

THE use of the pupil's own experience is a fundamental feature of all parts of this program. Then follows the identification of that experience in terms which society regularly employs and the extension of the pupil's knowledge through an ever-widening and deepening familiarity with his own community as well as through vivid accounts of social experience more remote in space and time. A single social idea or concept can seldom, if ever, be completely learned through a single encounter with hard fact. Most social concepts are taught through successive experiences, not merely in school years, but throughout life. It is seldom necessary or wise, however, to repeat identically the same experience. Usually one experience, if sufficiently vivid, will serve to fix a portion of the desired concept in the pupil's mind. Repetition often has a negative effect, implying that the teacher does not know what the pupils already know. This mistake, if too often repeated, will involve a loss of respect for the teacher, the subject, and even the school. Teachers will be well advised to err on the side of overestimating, rather than underestimating, the pupil's past knowledge. Perhaps the best procedure is merely to allude to the experience required for the

further learning. If the allusion is not recognized, the teacher may then be justified in expanding the reference in some form. If it is generally recognized by the class, the teacher may safely and without loss of time, proceed to the extension of that experience. The concept which the teacher desires to implant should, however, be repeated in connection with every new increment of knowledge. To ensure this progressive enlargement of the concepts of social relationship, it is essential that each teacher have more or less definite knowledge of what the pupils have already learned. In order to avoid the danger of trying to teach too much, it is, of course, equally important for the teacher to be aware of what the pupils are to study in succeeding grades. This knowledge involves definite vertical integration of the program, each new segment being based upon what has gone before as well as serving, in its turn, as the base for what is to follow. If the instruction is to yield vital, functional knowledge in the social studies, it must be thus vertically integrated. Perhaps this is only another way of saying that it must be thoughtfully planned.

#### OPENING NEW DOORS OF LEARNING

The desired outcome of instruction in this field is not simple. It is hoped that the pupils will emerge from the school fully aware of three truths: (1) that their own activities are part of the whole social web; (2) that their own careers are affected by happenings in other parts of that web, however remote; and (3) that their own individual careers are definitely affected by the extent of their knowledge of the ramifications of the social web. Such an end will require conscious and concerted effort on the part of *all* the teachers from the beginning

to the end of the school years. Teachers should take occasion at least once in every day's recitation to reveal the fact that each social relationship learned opens up further relationships to be explored. This process continuously repeated may result in a more intelligent discussion of difficult public questions and in a greater willingness to consider the further as well as the more immediate consequences of any contemplated social action. Thus, it is hoped that pupils may continue to study about society, not from a vague sense of duty, but from vivid realization that it has a vital bearing upon their own careers. This attitude of mind, this awareness of the wider relationship of their own work, can only be inculcated by sustained effort on the part of all the teachers of the social studies. Only by constantly opening new doors of social learning to the pupil can the teacher hope to establish the habit of studying society.

#### INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP STUDY

The use of the classroom for study as well as recitation purposes is one of the major improvements of recent times in the technique of teaching. It not only offers the teacher greater opportunity to aid the individual pupil according to his needs, but it also offers greater opportunity for the pupils to practise effective co-operation. The work of each unit or division of the subject matter usually permits of study projects in which a variety of talents can be utilized toward a common end.<sup>1</sup> Such projects can be worked out by small groups of self-organized and directed pupils. They can be made to in-

<sup>1</sup> The extension of the project method into the teaching of academic subjects has done much to make possible the use of nonacademic skills in connection with those subjects. W. H. Kilpatrick, the leader in this

volve intelligent distribution of labor on the basis of skill and ability as well as effective co-ordination of effort in a common achievement. This procedure can be used in any grade of the public-school system. Pupils can learn by practice where to seek stores of written information, how to gain information through observation of activities and from persons in the community, and how to organize this variety of information and to present it in the most effective manner, employing all the varieties of expression at their command. Social leadership and effective co-operation in common tasks, teamwork in the study of society, planning and execution of tasks involving a number of persons as well as varied talents can thus be fostered by actual practice as well as precept. Though the product of such effort may not always be impressive, the real values lie in the effort and deserve the utmost encouragement.

#### IMPORTANCE OF ADMINISTRATORS

The place of the administrator in the success of any such program is perhaps most vital. A vertically integrated program means educational planning and involves all segments of the school system.<sup>2</sup> The adminis-

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extension, presents a brief discussion of its use in history: W. H. Kilpatrick, "What Shall We Seek from a History Project?" in *Historical Outlook*, 13:215-216 (June, 1922). A pioneering work in the use of non-academic skills in the high school grades is that of D. C. Knowlton: *Making History Graphic*, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1925. For further references, see Horn, *op. cit.*, Chap. IX, and Wesley, *op. cit.*, Chap. XVII.

<sup>2</sup> The vital relationship of the school administrator to the social-studies curriculum has recently received special emphasis. Cf. Jesse H. Newlon, *Educational Administration as Social Policy*, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1934; Merle Curti, *Social Ideas of American Educators*, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1935.

trator alone can prevent the chaotic conditions which have defeated so many well-intentioned programs in the past. Unless the teacher can be reasonably certain of what the pupils have already learned and are to take up in later grades, instruction in the social studies can only be a treadmill in which each teacher at each grade level must start at the beginning and move on through the year. Obviously, under such a system, or lack of one, the pupils will not have advanced very far in the direction of understanding society by the end of the twelfth grade. In a vertically integrated program, however, there will always be opportunity to improve the technique of instruction in every grade.

It is disastrous for the pupils, whose functional knowledge of society can only be built up cumulatively, to be subjected at different stages of their progress to frequent sweeping changes in the program of social studies. Only the administrator is in position to make certain that serious changes in the program are made with due regard to the pupil's previous learning. Many adults today, for example, still blame their bad handwriting upon the fact that school authorities forced them to change to another very different system after they had become well started on the first system. The effect of such procedure in the social-studies program may not be so obvious, but it is even more serious to the pupil and to society. It will, therefore, be essential that the administrator procure the necessary co-ordination between the social-studies programs of the elementary grades, the junior high school, the senior high school, and, if his system extends so far, the junior



college. He alone is in position to ensure a successful integration of this kind.<sup>3</sup>

#### ELASTICITY IN INSTRUCTION

The aid of the administrator is also necessary to ensure essential elasticity in instruction. A program designed to deal with the whole range of varied abilities and interests at every grade level must have a very high degree of elasticity to be successful. One device for procuring this elasticity has been mentioned in the detailed discussion of the program by grades. This is the informal classroom procedure in which most of the time is spent in supervised study by individuals or small groups of pupils. Under such procedure, the teachers have an opportunity to learn the individual differences of pupils and thus to provide more intelligently for each according to his capacity and interest.<sup>4</sup> A system of helpful records of the pupil's individual interests and aptitudes as discovered by former teachers might prove very useful to later teachers. Possibly the administrators can supply this service. In addition to this, however, it is desirable that the administrators help to overcome certain rigidities which have developed in our educational procedure.

<sup>3</sup> The importance of planning school programs vertically from the elementary grades through the high school has recently received vigorous support from the National Society for Curriculum Research.

<sup>4</sup> The work of Howard C. Hill, W. G. Kimmel, and Howard E. Wilson in the University of Chicago high school has demonstrated the effectiveness of this more elastic procedure in the teaching of the social studies throughout the senior-high-school grades. References to their articles describing their work are to be found in Wesley, *op. cit.*, Chap. XXIX. Under this elastic classroom procedure, there is greater possibility that the brighter pupils may be introduced to the great classics in history and in other social studies in their high-school days as so much desired by Henry Johnson and by Ernest Horn, *op. cit.*, p. 233 ff.

*Less reliance upon a common textbook.* A common textbook has become one of the conventions accepted by administrators, teachers, pupils, parents, and politicians alike. There were better grounds for this practice when schools maintained strict scholastic standards for promotion and when high schools were chiefly preparatory schools for the learned, mainly academic, professions. Now, however, when each grade level, not only in the elementary but also in the secondary school, is apt to cover practically the whole range of mental ability and of vocational interest, it must be obvious that a common textbook cannot serve all the pupils. If, as is usually the case, the textbook is selected to serve the lower half of the class, it will certainly be too simple for the upper half, and almost certainly unsatisfactory for a large share of the class. More important still, the textbook which tries to cover the whole field of study can deal only briefly with its several topics, whether of first or second or lesser magnitude. The result is that the subjects discussed in such texts are necessarily too generalized and too remote from the pupil's life to yield any large amount of functional learning. This danger can be avoided if the teacher will provide a considerable range of reading matter for each class, including pictorial matter as well as more detailed accounts of the various topics considered in class.<sup>5</sup>

<sup>5</sup> Charles H. Judd has in recent years conducted a vigorous campaign to supply pupils with a greater range of reading matter. He exemplified his ideas by sponsoring a series of pamphlets entitled *Achievements of Civilization*, prepared under the auspices of the Committee on Materials of Instruction of the American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1932-33. Publications of national and state and municipal governments and of important business houses also afford much material of this kind, useful for the high school. See also Horn, *op. cit.*, Chap. VI.

Reading matter, it should be remembered, furnishes only one of the avenues to social learning. The direct personal experience of the pupils should be taken into account at all stages. Individual pupils vary as greatly in this respect as in any other. In many instances teachers will find it possible to guide pupils in making up deficiencies in experience. They can find numerous ways of enlarging the knowledge of pupils along the lines of genuine individual interests. They can, for instance, establish contact with various activities in the community; or they can have pupils report to their classmates upon individual experiences of wide social import. Individual visits to places of activity, visits by small groups of interested pupils, and in a few cases even visits by whole classes, are methods of enlarging direct experience.<sup>6</sup> Occasionally, persons engaged in important social activities may be induced to talk to the class. All these avenues of approach must in every case be definitely related to the more formal knowledge drawn from class reading.

*Less reliance upon a common examination.* Perhaps the most potent factor in maintaining these classroom rigidities is the common examination, whether confined to a single school system or administered by state authorities. Such examinations are usually based upon a common textbook or a syllabus which permits, but does not encourage, a wider type of reading. These examinations usually call for many inert items of positive fact—for events, dates, places, persons, and verbal generalizations. This tendency, common enough in for-

<sup>6</sup> For further discussion see Horn, *op. cit.*, Chaps. IX-XI; Wesley, *op. cit.*, Chaps. XXII and XXX.

mer times, has been greatly accentuated by the use of the still imperfect new-type or short-answer test. Since the teacher, as well as the pupils, is judged by the performance on such tests, there is every incentive to transform the class exercises into oral and written memory drills. Whatever value such a practice may have in some exact fields of science and technology, in the social studies it tends to destroy or to prevent the attainment of the desired ends.

The common examination in the social studies could be abandoned with less danger to education than to continue it in its present form. Even where reasons exist for holding such examinations, they can be made more flexible by expanding the options and including a wider range of questions. For example, to ensure the acquisition of functional knowledge in the social studies, such tests might well be aimed at discovering evidence of increased knowledge of the community and proficiency in varied forms of expression.

## 2. POPULAR OBJECTIVES OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The program has thus far been discussed from the point of view and in the language of those engaged in the educational profession. A program in the social studies is, however, of very definite interest to society at large. Society recognizes the services which a program in this field may render and has from time to time enacted specific requirements for the schools.<sup>7</sup> It is desirable, therefore, to consider whether the program here presented meets those demands.

<sup>7</sup> For fuller discussion of public interests and bibliography see Bessie L. Pierce, *Citizens' Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth*, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1933.

## AMERICAN HISTORY

First among the demands of society upon the schools has been the requirement that they supply all the youth of the land with a knowledge of the history and traditions of our nation. This demand is so strong that in some parts of the country a definite course in American history is required before the end of each division of the school system; that is, before the close of work in the elementary grades and in the junior high schools, senior high schools, and junior colleges. This requirement has, perhaps, not worked out as well in practice as had been hoped. Even under the best conditions, however, this treatment of American history inevitably repeated all that had been covered before and extended the pupil's knowledge very little beyond that point. Too often, moreover, the pupils became so bored with the repetitious material that they lost interest and did not try to learn even the little additional material offered.

The present program seeks to avoid the possibility of such a baneful state of instruction. The simple narrative of American history is first taught in the fifth and sixth grades. That main narrative is thereafter assumed to be in the pupil's possession and is kept freshened in his mind by frequent allusion, but never repetition. To this is added, in the ninth grade, a study of the relation of our country to the other important countries of the world. During the eleventh and twelfth grades, the chief problems of American history are treated systematically. In all the other years the materials of class consideration are illustrated and vivified by reference to the

activities of this country. From one point of view it might be said that, under this program, American history receives consideration for twelve years instead of four. The pupil thus has the opportunity to extend his knowledge of American history far beyond the limits of any single textbook in the field. He has a chance to learn, not only the main events, but also how those events are related to his own community and to the lives of his own ancestors. He is always learning something new and interesting about the history of his own country, while constantly reminding himself of what he already knows. Thus he does not acquire the erroneous idea that the subject consists only of a few main facts, all long past and in no way related to his own personal life.

#### THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

Public demand has been quite as insistent that pupils must study the Constitution of the United States as that they must learn American history. The fear lest a considerable portion of young people might leave school ignorant of the Constitution has led some states to prescribe its teaching as early as the sixth grade. Those members of the legal profession who have grown old in the study of this document might well wonder what a child of ten or eleven could acquire from such study. In many school systems, however, the Constitution is studied in courses on civics either in the junior or senior high schools, if not in both. The pupils are, naturally, better able to understand its meaning at the later period. There has been a tendency to teach American government too largely in a descriptive manner un-

related to the actual operation and ordering of society. In recent years, however, a number of textbooks have appeared using a more functional approach.<sup>8</sup>

The program here presented begins the study of the Constitution in the fifth grade when the story of its drawing-up is first related. Even before that time, however, the pupils will have come into contact with numerous agencies of government. After the fifth grade, as problems of government arise in the program, it is expected that these will be related to similar procedures in our own country. In the senior high school, where two years are devoted specifically to the problems of American history and government, the Constitution is a matter of constant reference. One of the members of the seminar who is active in patriotic societies found that it was possible for him to teach the pupils more of the meaning of the Constitution in this way than he could through two courses in civics in the junior and senior high schools. He regarded the approach here suggested as more vital and lasting because the provisions of the Constitution were continuously considered in connection with the actual conduct of all public affairs.

#### LOCAL HISTORY

In a number of states there are laws, or regulations with the force of law, requiring the teaching of local history either in the elementary or secondary school. Too often this has led, as in the case of American history, to a purely formal and more or less artificial con-

<sup>8</sup> For discussion of a more vital approach to the teaching of government see C. E. Merriam, *op. cit.* For application of this principle in the writing of texts see William Anderson, *American Government*, Henry Holt and Co., New York, 1938.

sideration of the subject. The present program calls for the use of local history in connection with every part of the program. Local history is treated as an integral part of the whole program, useful in illuminating the consideration of more remote communities, and even more so in revealing the impact of the more distant developments upon the daily lives of our own people.

#### COMMUNITY AND VOCATIONAL CIVICS

The importance of studying the local community in its economic, political, and social aspects has been recognized by civic groups, and various courses, usually in the ninth grade, have been offered to meet their demand. These courses have suffered from the fact that they have been too largely descriptive and their materials too much separated from actual life. The program outlined here is built up on the basic conviction that instruction in the social studies can only be made functional by constant reference to the institutions and activities of the immediate community. The use of the local community in its present activities as well as in its past development is, therefore, an essential part of every year's work. Some aspects of the community are within the comprehension of pupils in the first grade, while others will not be understood even when the pupils shall have ended their formal education.

The contribution of this program to a knowledge of vocations has already been discussed. While the program provides more or less definitely for this service in the four years from the seventh grade through the tenth, it continues to make incidental contributions in all of the other grades as well.



## LOCAL ACTIVITIES

As has been already suggested, the teachers of the region for which this program is designed are fortunate in possessing a comprehensive guide to local history and activities.<sup>9</sup> This guide is not confined, as is usual, to past political events and to curious items of antiquarian interest. It includes extensive reference to the economic development of the region, both agricultural and industrial. It is also concerned with social developments, with the growth of the churches, the expansion of education, the cultural progression of the state in art and music and science, and even with physical recreational activities. The teachers are thus enabled to direct the pupils toward further information about almost any local activity in which the class may have developed an interest. Since the references cited on any topic include a number of local newspapers and other periodicals as well as books, some of these will almost certainly be found in the immediate community. Additional materials are, however, available through the State Library Board or through the State Historical Society.

Emphasis on the chief economic activities of the region—that is, on the industries related to grain products and to dairying—might be broadened to include cattle raising. These approaches, it is thought, constitute in Minnesota the best mediums through which the interrelationship of the community and the world web of society can be practically revealed. These two major industries reveal in concrete fashion the effects on organized society of the division of labor, relations of

<sup>9</sup> Theodore C. Blegen, *op. cit.*

government and business, the operations of the tariff, technological improvements, and social concern about health and living standards. They thus bring to light not only the chief economic interests of the region, but also the interplay of political and social forces in terms of the practical operation of daily life. Much of this can be learned through written sources, though this approach must and should be supplemented by oral sources and actual observation.

In fact, in the seminar the written material was found inadequate for school use. Two members of the seminar accordingly devoted themselves to the adaptation of the material for use at the elementary- and secondary-school levels.<sup>10</sup> Each local community within the region may find it desirable to supplement the study of these activities with others of dominant immediate interest. To cite two of the more striking examples: the iron industry would naturally be considered in North-eastern Minnesota; and instruction at Rochester would similarly include predominant consideration of the medical arts and sciences. However, teachers will find relatively little difficulty in making use of such local activities. It is, perhaps, unnecessary to point out the fact that pupils who have learned to recognize the operation of the world forces in their own local industries will have less difficulty in understanding their

<sup>10</sup> Miss Margaret O'Farrell of the Tuttle School compiled a history and description of the dairy industry for the elementary grades. Parts of this were used in the primary, others in the intermediate grades. It is an unpublished study of the University of Minnesota. Wilbur H. Murra compiled a study of the problems of the dairy industry for use in the senior high school. This is partially completed and is an unpublished study of the University of Minnesota.

operation in the chief industries of other regions. That is, the problems centering around corn and hogs, cotton, fruit, and manufacturing of various kinds will be clearer to them. Nor is it necessary to add that if the operation of those forces is not brought home to the pupils in terms of the chief local activities, they cannot be expected to understand how they work elsewhere, or even at home.

#### CURRENT EVENTS

The subject of current events has already been discussed at some length in the more detailed account of the program where it was indicated how this material might be successfully used in the various grades. It is, therefore, only necessary to suggest here that something in the current news should be related to virtually every topic considered in class. Otherwise there will be little prospect of establishing in the pupil the habit of scanning the daily paper for news bearing upon both society and his own career. Certainly that end can not be gained if "current events" is treated as a thing apart to be covered in a separate course at some special grade level.

#### VERTICAL INTEGRATION ESSENTIAL TO INSURE DESIRED OUTCOMES OF INSTRUCTION

If the program of instruction in the social studies is so integrated that each year builds definitely upon the previous learning and does not attempt to overload the pupils with instruction which they will normally receive later, there is much greater hope of realizing the desired outcomes. Only thus can the instruction acquire those much demanded qualities of being real, vital, and

functional. If, through ten or more years, every pupil has been accustomed, each school day, to look for the bearing of current events upon his own affairs, there is less likelihood that he will discontinue the practice thereafter. Under such a program he should have acquired a sense that an interest in current events is not merely natural in every educated person, but is actually of definite personal value. If in each day's work he has been accustomed to recognize that every important social occurrence has further ramifications to be explored later, he will be less ready to settle important questions as soon as possible and in the most obvious way. He should also be more ready to distrust his own snap judgments and to seek advice from the best informed sources available. There should, then, be less likelihood that leaders whose school-day interests lie outside the social studies will postpone their serious concern about society and its problems until after the age of thirty-five. If so, our society should suffer much less from the disastrous lag in social knowledge which has been the cause of so much grief in the past. Such improvements, however, will depend in large measure upon the degree to which instruction in the social studies is integrated in the successive grades, that is, vertically integrated.

#### THE TEACHER

Several portions of this program have been tried out: namely, the whole year's work of the fifth, sixth, and seventh grades, the first year of the junior college, and fragments of other sections. This experience has revealed the fact that this program is not automatically effective. The results of tests applied at various intervals

during the trials indicate a fairly close relationship between the success of the pupils and the degree to which the separate teachers are conditioned to deal with the plan. On the other hand, the comparison of test results drawn from experimental and control groups reveals an interesting fact: On many of the distinctive aspects of this program, teachers of more than twenty-five years of experience, who might well be pardoned for having acquired fixed habits of procedure, were uniformly able to improve the work of their pupils beyond that of the control groups. Furthermore, practically all of the teachers found the experience an exhilarating one, despite the changes demanded in their accustomed procedure. Many of them who asked to be allowed to continue to use the program were doubtless inclined to this decision by the greater interest which the pupils displayed throughout the year. At any rate, both teachers and pupils seem to have found the undertaking pleasurable.

Certain essential factors in the success of this program can be supplied only by the teacher.<sup>11</sup> Most of these are inherent in the problem of interweaving the four elements of the program. Textbooks and reference books written for national use can scarcely be expected to contain material related to the local peculiarities of any state or portion of a state. The activities of any community are too diverse and too minute to be compressed within convenient textbook form. Likewise, the discovery and use of the individual pupil's interests and abilities is an undertaking demanding more than stereo-

<sup>11</sup> W. C. Bagley and T. Alexander, *The Teacher of the Social Studies*, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1935. See also *Conclusions and Recommendations* of the Commission on the Social Studies in the Schools, Chap. VII, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1934.

typed treatment. Furthermore, current events can not be predicted. Their relation to the local community or to the more formal work of the class must be detected by the teacher while the news is still fresh and of interest. The carefully prepared periodicals of current news for class use do afford help on some of the more important items, but the vital use of the whole range of topics in their immediate connection with each day's work can only be achieved by the teacher's vigilance. In fact it is not too much to say that the success of this program rests finally upon the degree of alertness the teachers reveal in making these interrelations clear to their pupils.

Not all teachers have been trained to look for such interrelationships. Though it would be possible, in any period, to name many who have regularly pointed out the connection between academic learning and life, yet the relative number has been very small, and too few of our social-science teachers have been privileged to obtain their training under such instructors. The usual practice has been for their instructors to teach by way of lectures and assigned readings, and to test the student's mastery of material so presented. These instructors have almost uniformly left to the students themselves the task of tracing connections between this material and life about them. As a result, most of the teachers, especially in the secondary schools, have assumed that their task is to deal with their students in precisely the same way. They themselves have conscientiously tried to master the contents of their text and reference books and have naturally passed on this same ideal to their pupils. As a result of this training, teachers have usually not been especially concerned about familiarizing themselves with

community activities, except as these have merely happened to come to their attention. There has also been some lack of concern about the individual differences of pupils. This fact has been due primarily to the conventional teaching procedure of holding common class recitations—a procedure which offers the teacher little opportunity of discovering individual interests and abilities.

Perhaps the teacher becomes confused at times about the true goal of teaching in the social studies. It is not the acquisition of a certain number of facts. The number of monumental facts necessary for every one to know in common is relatively small. Beyond this bare minimum, which is within fairly easy reach of nearly all pupils, the factual content of the social studies is to be regarded rather as a means through which the pupil may arrive at an understanding of society, its processes, and its trends. Such facts are not ends in themselves. However necessary they may be for the day's recitation or for a unit of work, most of them will have served their purpose when the unit has been completed. Thereafter, such facts may well be forgotten, though the lessons derived from them be reinforced from time to time through the use of other sets of facts. What is much more important is that each pupil advance his understanding of society at every stage of the work. The teacher's aim should, therefore, be that of having every pupil in his class progress in the understanding of society to the best of his ability. The teacher's demands upon the pupil should be reasonable, conditioned to the age of the pupil and to a proper regard for his general well-being. Within those limits, however, the

teacher should expect every pupil to advance according to his abilities, the bright pupil much more than the dull, the academically inclined much more than those whose talents are chiefly manual or motor. A teacher may well be judged not by the number of facts which his pupils possess in common, but rather by the degree to which each pupil has approached the reasonable limits of his ability in learning about society. Only thus can we avoid the dangerous wastage of the mental resources of our brighter pupils which is now altogether too common in our larger schools.

It is also well for the teacher always to bear in mind the injunction not to attempt too much either in a single recitation or in a single grade. His task is to extend the pupil's knowledge of the social web and its operation in his own community at least a degree beyond what it was at the beginning of each class period. His task is never to *complete* a topic listed in the outline. This statement is made so decisive in order to counteract a natural tendency of teachers to feel that, if they do treat any subject, they must completely circumscribe it then and there. This tendency is just as wrong as is that of the average pupil in assuming that when he has learned *something* about an item of social study he may thereafter close his mind to further knowledge. Unfortunately the teacher's tendency is reinforced by the pupil's desire for definiteness and completeness. Thus is developed a vicious circle whose operation will defeat, rather than promote, the pupil's chance of learning as much as he can about society. To counteract this evil, the teacher need only remind himself of the fact that no item of social learning is ever completed because each



extends on into the whole social web. That truth explains why it is always possible to discover new aspects of any subject, why it is possible to produce new articles or books on any phase of society, however remote. Thus, there can always be additional light thrown on George Washington, the Constitution of the United States, the French Revolution, Napoleon, Christopher Columbus, the Crusades, Julius Caesar, or Cleopatra, even on the Neanderthal man. And curiously enough, each new work may not only add to the sum total of what is known about the particular topic, but may also be the means of extending the reader's understanding of the community in which he lives. For these reasons the teacher should be content with the less ambitious, but more nearly possible aim of only *extending* the pupil's knowledge. He should count it a gain if only each increment of learning acquired by the pupil makes him aware of several others to be acquired in the future.

The fact that so many teachers have been so trained and so circumstanced in the past does not constitute an insuperable barrier for the use of this program. It is a fact that nearly all teachers of the social studies do want to know about the community in which they carry on their work. It is equally true that nearly every teacher is genuinely interested in individual pupils and is anxious to help them find themselves. Many of the teachers, however, have never been aware that these elements were absolutely essential to good teaching. Once conscious of that fact, most of them can be counted upon to enjoy the process of utilizing the several approaches suggested in this program.

Under these conditions of study, the community it-

self is likely to become more interesting both to pupils and teachers. Some of the local material can be learned directly, more of it must be acquired from reports of pupils who have direct touch with the circumstances involved. If the pupils are convinced that there is this direct connection between the activities of the community and their classroom learning, they will be prompt to observe and point out many forms of this relationship. The teacher's task then becomes one of selection from the offerings rather than one of time-consuming search through the community. These statements are based upon the experience of the teachers in the fifth grade in handling this program, and also on that of the teacher of the college class. It is expected therefore, that this continuous process of interrelating all four elements of instruction will prove to be mutually pleasant and profitable for pupil and teacher alike. Perhaps, however, the reality of such a desirable outcome can be better presented in the words of one of the teachers who actually enjoyed this experience. Her account follows.

A SURVEY OF THE SOCIAL LIFE OF  
THE TUTTLE SCHOOL DISTRICT

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(BY FAY ROGERS)

WHEN asked to make a survey of the Tuttle School District to discover what the social environment of our children is, I believed it would be a comparatively simple piece of work because I thought that I knew the district fairly well. The longer I worked, the more I began to appreciate the multiplicity and complexity of the ideas, opinions, beliefs, activities, interests, purposes, organizations, and associations functioning in the lives of the people of our community. The survey now seems to me to be the most profoundly educative enterprise I have ever undertaken; I wish that many teachers interested in the social studies might have a similar experience. In fact, I believe that it is almost imperative for teachers to have a greater knowledge of the forces operating in the lives of the children they teach, if they wish to furnish them with instructional material which has vitality and meaning.

The first task was to survey what might be called the outward evidence of the social life of the community. To do this I drove up and down the streets writing down anything of social significance—stores; factories; billboards; railroads; streetcar tracks; bus lines; the types of traffic on different streets; elevated crossings

over the railroad tracks; mail boxes; hydrants; no-dumping signs; sewers; the church; the park; an athletic field. The list became astonishingly long. This material was then somewhat arbitrarily organized under the three aspects of the social sciences—economic, political, and social.

However, the outside of a factory has little meaning to either children or teacher; they may pass it day after day without any desire to find out what goes on within. A far more difficult task was to study the material of the survey to see what it contained that we could use in helping our children gain desirable social knowledge, skills, attitudes, and understandings. In selecting from this long list of manifestations of human activities, I have tried to pick out those facts which have social consequences and relations and which the children may understand have direct application to themselves.

In my second undertaking, the task of learning the social facts underlying the physical setup, I called on as many of the people as I could who were, in any way, connected with the functioning of the social life of our community. Among these people were the managers of factories, the grocer's clerk, the shoemaker, the boy at the soda fountain, the minister, the visiting teacher, the school nurse, the garbage collector, the men who trim our trees, the man who runs the snowplow, the head of the dairying department at the Farm School. I think I may say that not once did I close a conversation without the feeling that I had gained something, either in worthwhile information or in broadened view. The most impressive feature of my contact with these people was their desire to help, their sincere interest in the welfare

of the children. They were astonishingly quick to sense what they had to give that would be of value. The manager of a large seed processing firm, for instance, said that he thought he might write up some of his experiences in his work. He could see that it would be interesting and I heartily agreed with him. The National Dairy Council allowed me to go through the vault in which they keep their educational material and select anything which was pertinent. A grocer lent me *The Grocers' Encyclopedia*, a book well worth reading. The head of a bag company sent me a bulletin describing the bag industry as it is carried on in different parts of the world. The inventor of a milker lent me a paper describing his invention which he had written for the University. At one of the flour mills I received a book of some two hundred pages, which described milling in Minneapolis from its beginnings.

A difficulty that I encountered in my visits with the people of the community was their desire to tell me what was wrong with our educational system. Being pressed for time, I diverted them whenever possible, but nevertheless learned a great deal of the general public's opinion of schools and school people. The owner of a successful industry said that while serving on the school board of a small community, he discovered that the principal of the school did not know how to make out a bank deposit slip. I murmured that possibly the community had not been generous enough to necessitate his learning, but my point was lost. I have mentioned my experience with this critical attitude to show the need for school and community to come together and learn from one another.

As an elementary school teacher with no particular training in the social studies, I found that I had great need of more knowledge to carry on the work of the survey. I went first to the specialists in these fields who helped me interpret what I had seen and heard and also directed my reading. A long period of studying economics, political science, and sociology followed. Did I find this reading dull? No, because I had a rich background of preparatory experiences. Later I began to select my own readings. I read six or seven books on advertising and discovered some of the reasons for the remarkable influence it has on human affairs. Educators might do well to study some of the ways an advertiser goes about accomplishing his objectives. My work on the survey has stimulated a desire to read in the field of the social sciences which will last over a long period of time.

The survey includes the present and more or less permanent actualities of the community. Beside these there are arising, all the time, spontaneous situations which, because of the immediate interest they arouse, provide vital material for the social studies. Teachers should always be on the lookout for these occurrences. Illustrations are the widening of East Hennepin; the fire at the American Excelsior Corporation; the truckmen's strike; the storms of the winter of 1936 which tied up transportation; the dispute between the residents of our district and the park board when St. Anthony Boulevard was changed; WPA workers in the community.

Interesting material may be drawn from the records of the past also. For example, the sons and daughters of Mr. and Mrs. James Elwell know the history of the

Tuttle district since 1882 when their father bought the land which was known as "the bottomless pit" because of its swamps and peat bogs and is now the busy community in which our children live.

### 1. THE ECONOMIC ASPECT OF TUTTLE DISTRICT

Fortunately the Tuttle district is a community particularly rich in illustrations of the institutions and processes of economic life. If we look at the zoning map of Minneapolis, we shall find the body of our residential district flanked on either side by the commercial and light industrial sections of East Hennepin and Como Avenues, and completely surrounded by a heavy industrial district. Adjacent to us is the Northwest Terminal comprising some ninety industries. Freight trains may be seen at any time on the Great Northern, Northern Pacific, and Omaha tracks. Heavily loaded trucks come down Stimson Boulevard from the Northwest Terminal on their way to all parts of Minnesota and the neighboring states. Commercial traffic between St. Paul and Minneapolis passes along Como Avenue continuously.

It is not surprising that the Tuttle school children are industrially minded. Question them and you will find that they have picked a considerable fund of information from their everyday contacts with the industrial life about them. It is not only our task to extend their experiences, but also to help them gain an understanding of the significance of the economic facts with which they become acquainted, insofar as elementary-school children are able to do so.

It will be well, I believe, for purposes of instruction to consider the economic phenomena of the com-

munity under the industrial units that are familiar to the children. They are the retail stores; public utilities; wholesale and distributing plants; factories; warehouses and elevators. It is needless to say that the children are not acquainted with some of these terms.

The buying that the children do in the retail stores in the district is the beginning, and continues to be the main part, of their economic activities throughout the elementary grades. They learn a great deal about their parents' buying habits in these stores as well. It seems logical, then, to emphasize the processes, people, and events which are related to retail business. The following is a list of the stores that we may use to acquaint the children with some of the significant facts of this step in the production process.

### *Groceries*<sup>1</sup>

1. A— A—, — Avenue. A small store with limited stock.
2. B— B—, — Avenue. A small store selling ice cream and soft drinks also. Next door is a secondhand store.
3. C— C— Grocery. Fairly well stocked.
4. D— D— Tea Company. A chain store well equipped and stocked.
5. E— E— Store. A chain store well equipped and stocked, attractively arranged.
6. F— F— Food Market. Proprietor pleasant and willing to talk to the children. He is a good teacher.
7. G— G—. Affiliated with the Red and White Local

<sup>1</sup> In this list I must, of course, be content with fictitious initials and blank locations. But the list shows that, to be serviceable in a given locality, a survey must be specific as to individual business houses, their location, and their equipment.



Independent Merchants—an illustration of co-operative buying among retail dealers.

8. H— H— Grocery Store.
9. I— I— Grocery and Meats. Sponsored by a mercantile company.
10. J— J—. Small stock of groceries, soft drinks, and ice cream.
11. K— K— Grocery.
12. L— L— Grocery.
13. M— M— Tea Company. Deals directly with homes. Manufactures many of its products.
14. N— N— Store.

Our district has also one pastry shop, four meat markets, three drugstores, one hardware store, four fuel dealers, thirteen oil stations, two ice dealers, and four beer parlors.

Retail stores are necessarily similar and, for purposes of economy, we shall consider only the grocery store in detail. I have stated as simply as possible the economic facts which, I believe, elementary-school children may understand. To assure real understanding we must see, of course, that the children meet these facts again and again, in well-planned excursions, in classroom discussions, or in any experience that will help them interpret their contacts with the stores outside of school.

1. There are commodities from all parts of the world in the grocery store. The grocer has performed a valuable service in assembling this wonderful array of goods for our convenience. His purpose is to make a profit in selling them to us. That is the way he earns his living.

2. The grocer must rent a building in which to keep his goods. He must hire men to help him. He needs several mechanical devices. He must have a truck for

deliveries. He has to keep a supply of goods on his shelves. In order to do all these things, the grocer needs considerable money.

3. Mr. C—C owns and runs his business by himself. It may be called “a one-man business.” Mr. G and Mr. G are partners and run the store together. They belong to a certain association of grocers. The grocers who belong to this association buy their goods together. This enables them to buy in larger quantities and to buy more cheaply. This is called co-operative buying. Mr. E, in the E—E Store, does not own the business. He is hired to run the store by a group of men who do not live in Minneapolis. This group of men is called a corporation, and they own stores in many cities.

4. The grocer buys most of his goods from the wholesale houses. Salesmen come to his store to see what he needs and to tell him about new goods. Sometimes the grocer buys eggs and fresh vegetables and fruit from farmers. He buys milk, cream, and butter from the creameries in Minneapolis.

5. Every day trucks stop at the grocery to unload boxes, crates, baskets, bags, and bottles of goods. An unusually large truck comes to the D—D Tea Store. Some day almost all trucks may be as large as this one. When the truck drivers went on strike, the grocers could not get their goods and we had to go without some kinds of food.

Much of the food comes to the store in very large quantities, and the grocer and his men have to weigh or count it out into smaller lots so that it will be more convenient for us to buy. This is a big job and the men work late at night to finish it.

6. The grocer cannot run his business just as he pleases. The people of Minneapolis, working through their government, have made laws which he must obey. The people of Minnesota have made laws which our grocers in Tuttle district must obey also. There are national laws which control his business, too. The grocer must buy a license from the city if he wishes to sell milk. He cannot buy a milk license unless he keeps a clean store and is in a healthy condition himself. He must buy a food license from the State of Minnesota. If he wishes to sell oleomargarine he must get a license from the United States Government. There are laws that require a grocer to sell some kinds of food by weight, to use standard-sized boxes and baskets and standard-shaped bottles. There are laws that govern the printed material on the various containers in which commodities come. The state and city send inspectors to the stores to see that our laws are being properly observed.

7. The city of Minneapolis performs important services for the grocer. It gives fire and police protection. It keeps the streets in good condition so that the trucks may get to his store and he may deliver goods to us. It supplies the grocer with water and sewerage. The United States provides postal service to help him carry on his business.

8. The men that the grocer hires to help him are called clerks. He wants clerks who are intelligent, healthy, honest, and willing to work. He would not hire a man who had never been to school. Many of the clerks working in the stores around us went to the Tuttle School.

9. The grocer has mechanical devices which work for him, as well as men. The telephone, the cash register, the scales which can figure costs, the electric coffee grinder, the cheese slicer, all do work that used to be done by men.

10. The grocery store is an attractive place. The displays in the window are so bright and colorful that we like to go into the store. On the counters are many commodities in such clever and attractive containers that our attention is drawn to them and we examine and sometimes buy goods that we have never seen or heard of before and often do not need. Many commodities are in artistic cellophane wrappers. Even our bread and butter are in attractive coverings. The grocer knows that all these things help to sell his goods. Sometimes his windows are partly covered with advertisements about bargains to be found in his store. Some of the Tuttle grocers leave weekly bulletins of specials at our doors. We listen to programs on the radio that tell us about coffee, breakfast foods, soap, and canned goods that he has in his store. We see his goods advertised in the newspapers and magazines. The manufacturer, the fruit and vegetable growers, and all the people who produce food help the grocer sell his goods.

11. The grocer's business is to sell goods. Our task is to learn to buy well. This means learning what food will help us best to grow strong and intelligent and for which we shall need to spend the least money. Mother needs to know about food value to feed her family well. There are many things that we may learn about buying food at the grocery. There is information printed on many of the goods we buy that is of considerable help.

There is the trade mark which tells the name of the manufacturer. In this way a commodity is identified for us and we may continue to buy it if we wish. The printed label on goods gives us worth-while information also. Usually it tells the quantity a box or can contains, the ingredients used in making a food, or directions for using and taking care of a commodity. The most helpful information we may find printed on goods is the standard which tells us the quality. It is unfortunate that it is not printed on many goods at the present time. At the grocery you may find eggs rated A, B, and C grades. A certain brand of butter is marked g3, which means that it reaches the standard of the best butter made in our country. A Federal inspector tests the butter before it can be marked g3. These buttermakers were the first people to ask to have their butter inspected and graded. They were the first to wrap their butter. On the bright carton around this brand of butter you will find not only the standard mark but also the stamp of approval of the *Good Housekeeping Magazine* and that of the American Medical Association. Some day we hope to have many more marked with a standard.

12. The value of every commodity at the grocer's is measured in terms of money. For everything bought at the grocer's, money is given in exchange. Sometimes your parents do not have money when they need the goods and the grocer gives them credit. When he wants the money he sends a bill for the goods. The grocer in turn asks credit from the wholesaler and sometimes gives his note promising to pay for the goods.

It has been stated previously that only the grocery would be discussed in detail because the same economic

factors operate in all retail stores. There are, however, certain facts peculiar to the other stores that may be emphasized.

1. The little cash-and-carry ice store illustrates the fact that we must pay for such conveniences as delivery service.

2. The number of oil companies operating stations in our community may be used to give some idea of competition.

3. Refrigeration is an outstanding factor in the meat markets. Here we may gain some idea of its importance in modern commerce.

4. The drugstores afford a good opportunity to study social control. The nature of the drug business has necessitated an unusual number of restrictions in the way of licensing, inspection, labeling, etc. The drug-gist is the only retail dealer of whom society demands definite educational qualifications.

#### PUBLIC UTILITIES

There is a group of industries that perform services necessary for our comfort, convenience, and pleasure. Because they send their products to us through pipes, over wires, along tracks, and over the air we do not know the men in these industries as well as we do those in the retail stores. These industries, because they serve all the people, are called public utilities. In our community they are:

1. Minneapolis Gas Light Company—owned by a private corporation. We may see a gas storage tank near the Tenth Avenue Bridge.
2. Minneapolis General Electric Company—owned by a

private corporation. There is a Northern States distributing station at Larpenteur Avenue and the city limits, which steps down the high voltage power, coming from Chippewa Falls, to the voltage needed for private use.

3. Minneapolis Street Railway—owned by a private corporation. Streetcar service is used extensively in our community because so many of our people have had to give up their automobiles.
4. Northwestern Bell Telephone Company—owned by a private corporation.
5. Radio—owned by private corporations.
6. Minneapolis Waterworks Department—owned by the people of Minneapolis.
7. United States Postal Service—owned by the people of the United States.

There are very few facts concerning public utilities that our children may understand. This is due, in part, to the fact that they have so little contact with the industries themselves.

1. We have many oil stations, groceries, meat markets in Tuttle district but only one of each public utility. It would cost too much to have two gas companies because each would require its own pipe system. All public utilities need expensive equipment with which to distribute their products or services. Therefore it is economical to avoid duplication.

2. Our privately owned public utilities operate under a franchise granted by the city of Minneapolis. The corporations run them to make money; but because their services are necessary to all the people, the state controls the rates they charge, the kind of service they give, and the amount of their earnings.

3. Everyone receives the same kind of service from a public utility and everyone must pay cash for it. Many of our parents have charge accounts with the retail dealers but never with a public utility.

#### WHOLESALESAERS AND DISTRIBUTORS

The functions of the middleman are rarely understood and are, therefore, unappreciated by the general public. It is not to be expected that elementary school children can go very far in tracing the relationships of this connecting link to the whole production process. The reason they understand the services of the retail dealer in connecting the creator of goods with the consumer is, no doubt, because they can see what he does. By observing the wholesalers and distributors of our community at work they may lay the foundation for a better understanding later. The wholesalers and distributors are:

1. The X and Z Motor Company—zone office, 2222 East  
—

Product—automobile parts

Market—dealers in Minnesota and parts of Wisconsin and South Dakota

This office performs the additional services of sending specially trained service men to help out dealers. It has eight salesmen who help the dealers put over new sales ideas.

2. U and V Steel and Wire Products, East —

Product—roofing, fencing, nails, concrete reinforcing, steel windows

Market—dealers and contractors in Minnesota, Wisconsin, Iowa, and the Dakotas



This is a storage and distributing branch for a Chicago manufacturing company

3. N. Y. Brewing Company Warehouse, R.R. tracks and  
— Avenue

This branch distributes to the dealers in the Twin Cities.

4. Oil Company—17th and East X. Wholesalers
5. N. V. Implement Company, — Avenue. Distributors
6. Y— Z— Co-operative

Product—dairy products, milk by-products, poultry  
Market—United States

Cold storage is well illustrated here.

#### STORAGE

The wholesaler must have agencies for storing and grading products. We have an excellent illustration in the Bunge Elevator Company. The immense addition which shot up like magic this summer has attracted the attention of every child in the Tuttle School, I believe. The grain is brought to the elevator after the harvest, cleaned, and stored until the dealer wishes to sell.

#### MANUFACTURING

The manufacturing stage of production is well illustrated in our community. The fundamental idea of manufacturing—that changing the form of raw material enhances its value—is easily comprehended. Our children's interest in the factories is stimulated by the fact that many have fathers, older brothers, and uncles working in them. We may well use our manufacturing plants to further the pupils' acquaintance with the industrial world.

*Manufacturing plants*

1. A Machine Works—1818 J. St. Local firm  
Products—feed grinder, stokers, electromagnets for taking pieces of metal out of grain  
Labor—union and nonunion  
Transportation—truck and rail
2. A Furniture Company, 2345 E. X. Local firm  
Products—living room furniture  
Raw material—lumber, cotton, steel springs, hair, tree moss, upholstering materials  
Power—electricity  
Market—Northwest  
Labor—union and nonunion. Only trained upholsterers work here; the best men have learned trade in Europe.
3. A Box Factory, 16th and E. X. Local firm  
Products—boxes for shoes, candy, hosiery, and cosmetics  
Raw materials—cardboard, paper, glue  
Market—local  
Labor—nonunion. Box makers are not organized.  
Transportation—truck and rail  
Power—electricity
4. A Paint and Varnish Company, 9999 E. X. Branch factory  
Products—paint and varnish  
Raw materials—lithopone, linseed oil, China wood oil (China), varnish gum (Florida, Venezuela, New Zealand), white lead, zinc oxide  
Market—Northwest  
Labor—open shop except for truck drivers; men trained in factory  
Power—electricity and gas  
This company also makes food products. They are

experimenting with soya beans. One factory makes linseed oil part of the year and oleomargarine the rest.

5. Air Products, East X

Products—oxygen

Market—hospitals and people who do welding

Labor—union and nonunion

Power—electricity

Transportation—rail

6. A Cooperage Manufacturing Co., 5555 E. X. Branch plant

Product—slack barrels

Raw material—pine, hackberry, cottonwood, gum, basswood (Mississippi, Alabama, Arkansas). Heads and staves come to this plant from other mills.

Market—Northwest. A dairy uses their barrels for powdered milk. This company makes as many as 70,000 barrels for packing turkeys to ship east in the fall.

Labor—nonunion. Some of the men have done this work for 40 years.

7. A Brass Company, 3333 E. X

Local firm—brother partnership

Product—beer dispensing equipment

Raw material—red brass from St. Louis and Chicago smelters

Market—United States and thirty foreign countries

Labor—Men trained in factory except for a few machinists, nonunion men

8. An Insulation Company, 1111 E. X. Branch plant

Product—insulating for houses and buildings

Raw material—ore (mica vermiculite) mined in Libby, Montana

Market—dealers in Minnesota, Wisconsin, Dakotas

The process is simple and very interesting

9. A Manufacturing Company, 1001 E. X. Local firm  
Product—industrial heating equipment, furnaces, forges, torches, oil burners  
Market—railroads and manufacturers all over United States  
Power—electricity  
Labor—machinist and men trained in factory—non-union
10. A Shade Company, 2002 E. X. Local firm  
Product—Venetian blinds  
Raw material—lumber, paint, cord, hardware  
Market—United States and a few foreign countries  
Labor—trained in factory, unorganized  
Power—electricity
11. An Excelsior Corporation, 3003 E. X. Branch plant  
Product—
  1. excelsior made from poplar and basswood of Minnesota and Wisconsin
  2. sweeping compound made from excelsior fiber
  3. flax fiber for upholstering—flax from Minnesota, Wisconsin, Michigan
  4. boxes and excelsior pads for shipping baby chicks. (These are made from March through June.) At this time the firm becomes a jobber for chicken feeders, fountains, and stoves  
Market—Minnesota, Wisconsin, Iowa  
Transportation—trucks and railroads
12. A Milker  
Product—milking machine, invented by manufacturer
13. A Machine Company, 9009 W Avenue  
Product—an oil burner, invented by manufacturer
14. Farm Machinery, W and West. Local firm  
Product—garden tractors

Market—United States and foreign countries

Labor—nonunion

15. A Steel Company  
Product—cut steel  
Warehouse for a larger steel company
16. A Screen Door Company, 22d and K Streets. Minnesota Corporation  
Product—screen doors, screens of all kinds, stove boards  
Raw materials—wire cloth, lumber, sheet metal  
Market—United States  
Labor—union and nonunion, trained in factory
17. A Grain Company  
Product—feed for cattle, hogs, poultry—30 different kinds  
Raw material—cottonseed meal, molasses, corn, wheat, grain screenings  
Market—United States, not much in the East because of freight rates
18. A Chemical Company, 211 W Avenue. Local firm  
Product—fly spray, insecticides, rat exterminators, roach powders  
Market—hospitals, schools, public buildings  
This firm is a jobber for floor finishings.
19. A Feed and Seed Company, 1234 J. Street  
This firm processes seeds. It imports and exports all over the world. Almost every state has laws controlling seed processing which have to be observed by the processor. It is a very interesting place to visit.
20. Commercial analytical chemist  
Makes analyses of such products as oil, paints, greases, soaps, cold-creams, etc., for individual buyers and retail dealers.
21. A Bag Company

**22. A Mills Laboratory, East X**

Cereal research is carried on here. Because of the nature of this work, no information is given out. No visitors admitted.

*Facts which our children may learn:*

1. A manufacturer takes raw material and by changing its form makes it more adaptable to our use.

2. The manufacturer must have a building to work in; raw material; men to help him; fuel or current to run his machines. Machinery wears out, becomes old-fashioned, and has to be replaced.

3. Some factories are owned by one man, some by partners, some by corporations which hire managers to run the business.

4. People who work in factories usually do one small part in making a product.

5. There are many dangers connected with working with rapidly moving machinery.

6. Some factory jobs require strong men; others, very quick men to keep up with the machines. In factories where food products are made the people must be clean and healthy.

7. Some of the people who work in factories join together in groups called unions. They believe that people working together accomplish more than working alone. The unions work for shorter hours and safer and more healthful places to work in.

8. In a factory there are several kinds of workers. There are managers who look after all the affairs; stenographers and bookkeepers who do the clerical work; machinists who take care of the machinery; others

who work with their hands and need no training before learning their jobs.

9. Some factory owners are interested in making their places of business pleasant places in which to work. Their factories are clean and well ventilated and lighted. The machinery is made as safe as possible. There are pleasant rest rooms, a dining room, and beautiful grounds.

10. Relation between government and factories:

- a.* Protection of property rights.
- b.* Through departments of Agriculture, Labor, and Commerce, our government compiles and distributes business information.
- c.* Government issues patents and copyrights.
- d.* The Weather Bureau gives information that is valuable to shippers of perishable goods.
- e.* The Federal Bureau of Standards maintains accurate standards of weight and measures.
- f.* Government protects the general welfare.
  - 1. health and sanitation regulation
  - 2. factory inspection
  - 3. use of safety appliances
  - 4. building inspection
- g.* Labor legislation—Workmen's Compensation Act.

11. Every factory has a spur connecting the plant with the railroad facilitating transportation. Truck transportation seems to be increasing among our factories.

## PERSONAL SERVICES

There is another group whose work is to satisfy our wants, not by making or selling things to us but by performing services for our convenience, improvement, and general well-being.

1. In our homes are mother, father, and other members of the family preparing food, making clothes ready to wear, and doing many tasks which give so much comfort and pleasure.

2. The principal, teachers, librarian, nurse, clerk, and janitors of Tuttle School are employed by the people of Minneapolis to care for the education of our community.

At our call are the supervisors, special teachers, physicians, and special nurses who will come to Tuttle to use their special abilities to further the education of the children.

3. The pastor of the — Church performs a very great service to the community by promoting its religious life.

4. Dr. — does much to prevent sickness and relieve suffering in our community.

5. Dr. — promotes our health by taking care of our teeth.

6. The barbers and the woman in the beauty parlor help us to keep clean and to look our best.

7. The tailor, shoemaker, and dry cleaner help us to care for our clothing.

8. There is a great crowd of people who add much to our pleasure. They are the entertainers whom we



hear over the radio. There is a much greater group of people who have performed an invaluable service for us. They are the people who wrote the books in our library.

## 2. THE SOCIAL AND CULTURAL ASPECTS OF TUTTLE DISTRICT

Kindergarten and primary teachers who have the opportunity of watching young children make their first adjustments to school have a sympathetic understanding of their efforts to stand up to this exciting new life. These beginners meet a group of thirty or forty strange children, a tremendously stimulating event. They make the acquaintance of the teacher, the principal, the school nurse and doctor, supervisors and special teachers, and each demands a new and unfamiliar response. They are whisked here and there for tests of various kinds. For the most part, the children make the many new adaptations required of them during the first weeks of school life cheerfully, calmly, and usually with much enjoyment. We are not surprised, however, when mental confusion and emotional disturbances occur and a mother comes to the door to say, "Johnny says that he won't come to this school any more." One little boy summed up his opinion of public school life very well when he said, "I don't like it. There is too much of kids."

Because parents and school people have recognized the difficulties of this beginning period, they have done much to make it a happier and more instructive experience. When we consider the number of new things, ideas, and occurrences which all of our children experience daily in and out of school, it is reasonable to conclude that their lives continue at an exciting and stimulat-

ing pace, with the same dangers of mental confusions and emotional upsets. During their school years, however, they have almost unlimited opportunities to develop better social attitudes and to further their understanding of the innumerable human relationships which make up the whole of life. Our teachers, I believe, regret their narrow understanding of the lives of their pupils, and they know that their lack of knowledge of the events, organizations, institutions, and living ideas which the children touch daily is one of the great handicaps in effective teaching of the social studies. It is our hope that this survey of the social aspect of the community will supply some of the needed facts to help our children more truly understand their community and to help the teachers understand the pupils through a better knowledge of some of the forces impinging on the children.

#### FAMILY LIFE

In checking through the individual record cards of the school, I found that approximately ninety per cent of the parents of our children are American born. A great many come from the farms and small towns of Minnesota and the neighboring states. The fact that many retain connections with the rural areas through relatives and old friends means that Tuttle children have the opportunity to become acquainted with country life through visits to grandparents, uncles and aunts, and old neighbors.

One generation beyond the fathers and mothers are the grandparents, many of whom come from the Scandinavian countries, Germany, Czechoslovakia, Italy, Greece, and the British Isles. With them have come the

traditions, customs, stories, and songs of their native lands. Our children have a rich and varied heritage and we should help them to keep it a real influence in their lives.

In the typical Tuttle family both parents are living and there are one, two, or three children. Large families are the exception. Broken homes are rare. A member of — Church told me that in the twenty-five years she had attended that church, she remembers only one divorce occurring among its membership.

Nearly all Tuttle families live in single houses. There are a few duplexes and two or three four-family apartments. Some of the houses are comfortable and attractive; many are old and run down; some have almost no modern conveniences. Since I started the survey there has been a decided move, stimulated by FHA, toward improving some of the older homes. The interiors of the homes indicate wide cultural differences among our people. In some homes are oil paintings and a wealth of books and the better magazines. Other homes are furnished comfortably and attractively, but give no evidence of intellectual and cultural development. One home had thirteen artificial bouquets. I mention this fact because the boy who comes from that home shows no control in his behavior at school, and we have thought his conduct a reaction from the repression that he undergoes at home in order not to upset the elaborate decorations. In many of the homes the furnishings are pitifully meager and unattractive and comprise only what is needed for living. The yards in the district are good sized and provide plenty of room for play. There are many shade trees and pretty gardens whose beauty

counteracts to a considerable degree the dirt and grime caused by the trains and factories.

The fathers earn their livings in varied occupations. There are a few professional men; professors and instructors at the University, a minister of a Greek Protestant Church, a doctor, one or two dentists, several electrical and civil engineers. There are one veterinarian, several druggists, and many who do clerical work in commercial firms. The majority are skilled and unskilled laborers in the manufacturing plants of the district. The family income is usually small. This fact has necessitated many mothers going out of the home to do what they can to add their bit. Children brought up under these conditions learn certain economic facts very fast. One little girl in the first grade has a small sum of money to spend each noon to buy food for herself and her little brother. She has need for help in consumer buying now.

#### INSTITUTIONS FOR THE DEVELOPMENT AND DISTRIBUTION OF IDEAS, NEWS, KNOWLEDGE, AND OPINIONS

The Tuttle children cannot be considered fortunate from the viewpoint of possessing those things that money can buy, but they have unusual opportunities of coming in contact with ideas and cultural institutions. It is a unique situation, I believe, that we should have within the district or in close proximity to it so many educational institutions. To enumerate briefly there are: (1) the nursery school of the Child Welfare Department of the University of Minnesota which many of our children have attended; (2) the Tuttle Elementary School; (3) the Marshall High School, whose extracurricular ac-

tivities such as athletic games, musical and dramatic events have great interest for our children; (4) the University of Minnesota, which extends a profound influence throughout the district; (5) the St. Lawrence Parochial School which many children of the district attend; (6) Breck, a private school for boys on Como Avenue; (7) the University Farm School which affords a splendid opportunity for profitable excursions; (8) and, to complete the circle of educational institutions, the little district school at Larpenteur and Cleveland Avenues.

Our people cannot buy many books and magazines but they are fortunate in having a city branch library in the school building, beside the fine library Tuttle School has built up and the books we have access to through our connection with the University. Beside the Minneapolis newspapers our people have the *Times* and *Eastside Argus* which are southeast Minneapolis publications. The Minneapolis *PTA Broadcaster*, which every family in the school receives, is a most efficient organ for the distribution of ideas.

The Tuttle children have access to the Minneapolis Art Institute, the Public Library Museum, and the University Museum. We are fortunate in being only a short distance from the Como Park Zoo in St. Paul. The Minnesota State Fair Grounds are not more than a few miles from the school.

Fathers, mothers, older brothers and sisters in Tuttle district take advantage of the many classes offered in adult education and extension courses offered by the Minneapolis Public Schools and the University of Min-

nesota. It is our privilege this year to have a Public Forum in Tuttle. This is a project carried on by the Federal Government under the direction of the United States Commissioner of Education, Mr. Studebaker.

#### THE HEALTH OF TUTTLE SCHOOL CHILDREN

The health of our children is receiving more attention by parents and school people at the present time than ever before. The children enter school with a fund of information concerning their personal health and several health habits established. The health measures employed in the school are usually their first contact with public health. The training they receive in the use of the drinking fountains, toilets, paper towels, and handkerchiefs may develop an appreciation of these measures for the prevention of disease and physical disabilities. A study of the school's lighting, ventilating, and heating systems and methods used by the janitors in cleaning the building will add to this appreciation. The examination and inspection by the school doctor and nurse, exclusion from the classroom when ill, and quarantine should develop an ever-increasing responsibility for the health of their schoolmates. When the children see a playmate who has been hurt taken to the General Hospital, they may learn that the people of Minneapolis accept the responsibility of accidents that occur on the school premises and provide first aid. Through a knowledge of the following institutions the children and special classes may gain some idea of the efficiency and thoroughness with which Minneapolis takes care of its handicapped.

**1. Clinics**

- a.* skin—diagnostic and treatment
- b.* eye—treatment
- c.* ear—diagnostic
- d.* orthopedic—diagnostic
- e.* heart—diagnostic
- f.* chest—diagnostic
- g.* dental—treatment
- h.* child guidance—mental hygiene

**2. Hospitals**

- a.* General Hospital—emergency
- b.* Glen Lake—tuberculosis

**3. Schools for crippled and defective**

- a.* Trudeau—undernourished
- b.* Dowling—crippled
- c.* Hard of hearing
- d.* Sight saving
- e.* Special classes for subnormal
- f.* Classes for speech difficulties

Through the direct instruction of the classroom teacher and the physical-training classes the children develop good physical and mental habits and some appreciation of their importance in a happy, successful life.

**RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES**

The unorganized recreational activities of Tuttle children are very interesting; after making a detailed survey of them, I felt that splendid foundations were being laid for the wise use of their leisure time. There are

five hundred children in our school. About seventy-five take dancing lessons; almost a hundred are learning to play a musical instrument; a few are taking special art lessons; more than a hundred can swim now, and all of the others seem to be on the road to acquiring the art. In a city that has so many swimming pools and beaches, it is unfortunate that the Tuttle children have only the John Ryan Baths. The Marshall and Tuttle Parent Teachers Associations are interested in getting a swimming pool for southeast Minneapolis. It might be an interesting problem for our children to follow their endeavors and learn some of the pressures used to accomplish such a purpose.

Other outdoor sports are skating in Van Cleve Park, hiking along the Mississippi River bank, and bicycling. Reading seems to be the favorite indoor pastime. Our fine selection of books and exceptionally capable librarian have helped to make it so.

An inquiry into the hobbies of our children brought forth many responses. It seems that Tuttle children go in for pigeon raising, photography, carving, hunting, fishing, boxing, building airplanes, and making scrap-books. They collect stamps, shells, butterflies, coins, match boxes, match buds, milk-bottle caps, toy autos, and pictures of the movie stars and of the Quintuplets. Many of these collections are temporary enthusiasms but some represent serious interests. One boy has pursued his interest in natural science until he has acquired excellent powers of observation and a remarkable fund of information.

Our children have some fine opportunities for cultural recreation. They may attend the children's con-



certs given by the Minneapolis Symphony Orchestra. Special lectures are given for them at the Minneapolis Art Institute. The nearest motion-picture theater is a good mile from our district—not so far away that the children cannot get to worth-while pictures, but far enough not to be a source of constant temptation.

Our children participate in very few organized activities. The Park Board sponsors several activities every summer in Van Cleve Park. A few children belong to the Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, and the junior YMCA. There is a large group in the Four-Square Club. Through their school membership in the Junior Red Cross, our children have an opportunity to become interested in the problems of children of many countries. Many school clubs spring up from time to time. They arise from a group interest in stamps, poetry, wild flowers, or birds. The civic leagues and the school council are organizations set up by the school for the purpose of civic training.

As already indicated, the children belong to few organizations, but they do come into contact with a surprising number of adult associations which have been organized for benevolent, charitable, religious, moral, and social purposes. Some of these associations are:

1. The clubs and societies which are connected with the — Church and — Church.
2. The WCTU is especially strong in our district and our children therefore get some knowledge of its purposes.
3. Several children belong to junior associations subsidiary to fraternal lodges and orders and thereby be-

come acquainted with the social purposes of this type of organization.

4. Through such drives as Clean-Up Week the children come in contact with the Junior Civic and Commerce Association.

5. During the Community Fund drive the school children vote on which agency is to receive the school's contribution. In this way they get some idea of the number of organizations in Minneapolis operating for social betterment.

6. Through their own needs many of the children become acquainted with the Family Welfare Association, Sunshine and Goodwill Societies, Salvation Army, Catholic Relief, Animal Rescue League, and the Margaret Barry House.

7. The children are naturally well acquainted with members of Tuttle PTA. It would be well for us to use this organization as a means of showing the children what co-operative effort can accomplish. It would be possible for the children to participate in many of the activities of the PTA.

In regard to church attendance in Tuttle district there is an unusual situation. More than half of the people are Catholic or Lutheran, while the only church within the boundaries of the district is Congregational. The majority of the adults, therefore, go to churches out of the district, but the children of many faiths attend the — Sunday School. This church undertakes the religious instruction of all the boys and girls who come to it, but the support of the Sunday School falls on a comparatively small congregation. The other or-

ganizations of the church, the Christian Endeavor, the Ladies Aid Circles, the men's and boys' club include many people with other church affiliations. The — Church forms a real social center for the community.



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REGIONAL PROGRAM FOR  
THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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any way shall have to be replaced  
by the borrower.